

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 4, 1873.

The Week.

CONGRESS met on Monday, and proceeded to the choice of Speaker. Mr. J. G. Blaine was of course elected. The Democrats, with all their accustomed profligacy and contempt for public opinion, supported Mr. Fernando Wood for the position, notwithstanding that gentleman's prominence as a "back-pay thief." The Republican members immediately held a caucus, and determined upon the repeal of the back-pay act. General Butler, who has generally been supposed to be in favor of back-pay, proved that this was an injustice by proposing that an act should be passed authorizing suits at law for the recovery of the pay already received. This, however, was thought unnecessary. So that the session opens ominously for the Party of Hate, and radiantly for the Party of Progress and Human Rights.

The President in his message reviews the condition of foreign affairs, and finds them on the whole in a satisfactory condition; renews his recommendation for a commission to distribute the *Alabama* award; invites Congress to work out and define when and how expatriation can be accomplished, to regulate by law the condition of American women marrying foreigners, and to fix the status of children born in a foreign country of American parents residing more or less permanently abroad; recites the history of the *Virginus* case, but does not submit the diplomatic correspondence for the consideration of Congress, as it was conducted by cipher and by Cable, and needs "the verification of the actual text" before this can be done. He has meanwhile "authorized the Secretary of the Navy to put our navy on a war footing, to the extent at least of the entire annual appropriation for that branch of the service, trusting to Congress and the public opinion of the American people to justify my action." He suggests two minor Constitutional Amendments. With regard to Government finances, the President expects a falling-off of the revenues and increase of expenditures, and recommends economy to Congress; refers to the panic, which he thinks may perhaps yet prove "a blessing in disguise"; thinks that permanent prosperity is impossible until a specie basis is reached, and that a specie basis cannot be reached until trade is in such a condition as to leave us an "appreciable accumulation of the precious metals in the country from the products of our mines"; opposes inflation; thinks the National Banks ought to be prevented from paying interest on deposits, and says that "elasticity in our monetary system, therefore, is the object to be attained first, and next to that, as far as possible, a prevention of the use of other people's money in stock and other species of speculation"; recommends the creation of clearing-houses, and makes some suggestions looking to "elasticity," clearing-houses, and free banking; refers to the increase of American shipping; makes one or two minor recommendations as to "cheap transportation"; thinks the involuntary clauses of the Bankrupt Law, so far as they cover non-fraudulent cases, ought to be repealed; recommends aid to the District of Columbia, more civil-service rules, general amnesty, and a new civil-rights act.

Secretary Richardson reports the receipts and expenditures for the fiscal year, and declares that the receipts have fallen off, owing to the reduction of taxation. Estimates of those for the coming year he does not venture to make. He reports that \$84,500,000 of the new five per cent. loan have been taken, and that the whole amount of funding done since the passage of the act has been, or will have been when these subscriptions mature, \$300,000,000, re-

ducing the annual interest charge \$3,000,000. The only portion of the report containing anything very interesting is his account of the part played by the Treasury in the panic. He says that last summer, anticipating the autumn stringency, he sold gold while the market price was high; that when the pressure came he was urged to lend \$20,000,000 in legal tenders to the New York banks, on pledge of Clearing-House certificates secured by collaterals, but refused to do so as contrary to law. He was also asked to buy exchange on London with Government money, but refused to do so. The New York Produce Exchange also asked him to lend currency to bankers to buy exchange, on receiving satisfactory evidence that the gold had been deposited against it in London, and to anticipate payment of the loan falling due January 1, 1874. He refused. The Charleston Chamber of Commerce also asked him to lend currency to be used in the purchase of exchange in New York, which he also refused to do. He reports that he bought bonds to the amount of \$13,000,000, but ceased at this point, owing to the large amount offered. He condemns the payment of interest on deposits by the National Banks; recommends that "elasticity" be given to the currency, but leaves it "to the wisdom of Congress" to say how it is to be done, though he thinks a return to specie payments ought to be coupled with it; nevertheless, would have the banks allowed, under certain circumstances, to increase their note circulation by pledge of United States bonds; denounces any increase of the legal-tender circulation beyond \$400,000,000 as a violation of public faith solemnly pledged; thinks that in order to return to specie payments "the volume of currency must be reduced or that of coin increased"; thinks the power of the Secretary over the \$44,000,000 reserve should be accurately defined; likes the late slight increase in American shipping; and makes a number of minor recommendations with regard to the organization of the Custom-house.

The Secretary of the Interior reports the favorable progress of the Indian policy, and thinks that the practice of paying annuities to the Indians in money should cease, on account of the bad effects of money on the Indian character, and that they should hereafter be paid in goods; suggests that individual ownership be substituted for ownership in common as far as possible; with regard to the Modocs, says that it has been deemed best to remove the entire remnant of the tribe to this side of the Rocky Mountains, and to break up its tribal relations and divide the members among certain friendly Indians in the Southern Superintendency; invites the attention of Congress to the request of a body of Mennonites, who for several generations have resided in Southern Russia, that our land-laws may be modified to such an extent as will enable them to settle here and acquire and hold land in accordance with their own customs. He refers also to the "present unprotected condition of the Yellowstone National Park," and says that no appropriation has yet been made for opening it to the public under proper regulations; that the public now go there without any regulations, and carry off the mineral deposits and other curiosities; and that a superintendent was appointed in May, 1872, but, there being no appropriation, his services have necessarily been gratuitous, as "he could not be expected, under such circumstances, to reside permanently in the Park."

The Secretary of War puts the strength of the army on paper (the figures are given in a report by General Sherman) at 29,505 men; the effective force at 19,652. The Secretary of the Navy puts the navy at 63 steamers, carrying 826 guns; 29 sailing vessels, 322 guns; 48 iron-clads, 121 guns; and 25 tugs. Of this number, there are at present in commission 46 vessels, carrying 407 guns. The eight new sloops-of-war authorized by the last Congress are all building. Every effort is now being made to have the navy ready for war, should one occur, and the Secretary thinks that, "inadequate as this force may reasonably be deemed to the responsibilities

and pretensions of a Government like ours, and greatly at disadvantage as we certainly shall be, in respect of number and character of vessels, in a contest with the fleet of any respectable naval power," the Secretary believes that the "activity, skill, science, and experience" of our navy "will be found equal to any difficulty which courage dares to meet or energy will avail to conquer."

We believe the Chief-Justiceship was, contrary to the fond and foolish anticipations of the *Boston Advertiser*, offered to Mr. Conkling, and by him duly declined. He looks forward, we imagine, to a wider sphere of usefulness. His friends in the press declare that he is going to devote himself this winter to the currency question. We are very glad to hear it, only we fear that he will hardly have "got himself up" in it before the close of the session. If he *does* buckle down to the study of any subject of legislation, it will be the first time in his political career that he has done so, and the phenomenon will be watched by the people of this State with great interest. We must warn him, however, that study is monotonous and repulsive, and cannot compare in liveliness to stump-speaking and "managing." Mr. Williams, the Attorney-General, has got the vacant place. It is rather odd, it must be admitted, that the chief of a court which has to pass on the most complicated controversies of a great commercial country, should be chosen from the bar of a frontier State like Oregon, whose practice is mainly created by the simple disputes of a rude and sparse population of farmers. But Mr. Williams, if not able and learned, is laborious, painstaking, and respectable, and, as things go, his appointment will create a feeling of relief.

There has been another terrific disaster at sea—the *Ville du Havre*, a splendid steamer of the French line, having been cut down to the water's edge by collision with a sailing vessel in mid-ocean, on a clear, starlight night. Two hundred and twenty lives are reported lost. Who was to blame is not known at this writing, and perhaps may never be. The officer in charge of the deck when the accident occurred has been drowned. The captain was in bed, but remained with the ship until she sank, and was picked up out of the water. The presumption in such cases is naturally against the steamer, which is bound to make way for a sailing vessel, but this rests on another presumption, that the sailing vessel keeps a proper lookout. We shall know more about the matter, however, by-and-by. The year has been terribly prolific in these calamities at sea, and the worst of them is that they all seem to show that science has run ahead of morals in the matter of navigation. All that the skilful use of natural laws can do for safety in sea travelling has apparently been done. We have now hulls and machinery which winds and waves assail in vain, compasses almost incapable of deception, and lifeboats as big and more seaworthy than the ships in which the early discoverers crossed the ocean. We do not *watch*, however, apparently as well as we invent and construct. The two ships which went ashore last summer were hurled on the rocks because men were sleepy and careless. We suspect that, when we know the whole story of this last wreck, we shall find that somebody who ought to have been wide awake was taking a nap or "trusting to luck." The same tendency to sluggishness shows itself in nearly every department of activity. Vigilance is a declining virtue, and, whether it be war or finance or navigation, we all hope that somehow we shall "pull through" without taking some troublesome or disagreeable or costly precaution. There never was a time when the duty of "keeping our weather-eye open" was more neglected.

We were a little premature in saying last Thursday that Tweed was at that moment in the Penitentiary. He was not removed to that institution until Saturday, and probably would not have been removed then if the Sheriff had not been filleted into promptness by a stern and threatening remonstrance from Attorney-General Barlow. Tweed was allowed three days at the Tombs to transfer his property and settle his affairs—which, though in the case of most criminals a humane and reasonable custom, irritated people a good

deal in Tweed's case, owing to the general belief that his property consisted mainly of "swag." At Blackwell's Island he has passed into the regular machine of punishment, wears convict clothes and eats convict fare. His present condition must be a subject of hearty satisfaction to all friends of good morals and good government, and nevertheless he will attract more or less of the pity which people are apt to feel for an old man overtaken by a punishment which he cannot hope to outlive, and which the community in which he acted for many years encouraged him not to expect. He gave the finishing touch to the comic element in politics by registering himself at the Penitentiary as "a statesman."

Judge Davis worthily closed the proceedings in Tweed's case by a stern lecture to the three lawyers who tried to intimidate him at the beginning of the trial by the presentation of formal imputations on his impartiality, and inflicted on them a fine of \$250 each—a mild, but perhaps adequate punishment. One of the trio, Graham, was an old offender, who has long figured in criminal trials as an uproarious and weeping bully, and has apparently relied largely on his turbulence and disorder to divert the attention of juries from the real matter in hand. If it had been possible to single him out for severer chastisement, the good work would have been nearly completed. We trust the applause which has followed Judge Davis all through this case will encourage other judges to cast aside the timidity of these latter years and do something for the lawful correction of "the manners and excesses" of the bar.

The Chamber of Commerce of this city have under consideration a series of resolutions in favor of a return to specie payments. On the 6th instant, these resolutions were referred to a committee, consisting of Messrs. A. A. Low, George Opdyke, and Samuel Babcock. Messrs. Low and Babcock have made a report, in the shape of a memorial to Congress, representing that the time has come when a just regard to the commercial and financial interests and the honor of the country demands a return to specie payments, or the initiation of such measures as will lead to resumption at an early day; that gold or silver is in the commercial countries of the world the accepted standard of value; that gold is still, in the United States, money for various enumerated purposes—*e.g.*, the payment of duties; and that its constantly fluctuating price enters into almost every commercial transaction, and is a constant source of trouble and loss, and causes speculation; that to this speculation is in part due the very premium which stands in the way of resumption; that "for all the uses above-named, with one exception, gold coin would cease to be a necessity in the event of resumption, as all the national currency would stand on the same plane. For the single purpose of liquidating the balance of our foreign trade, from time to time, the use of gold coin would be indispensable; and it may be remarked that what appears in our export tables as bullion for the last year, has consisted most largely of gold and silver bars"; and that it follows from these considerations that the only thing that need be taken into the account in determining the feasibility of resumption, is the condition of the balance of trade with foreign countries. The amount of gold required to liquidate this balance is constantly declining, owing to the increase of exports, and the committee therefore recommends, 1st, that the United States stop purchasing bonds; 2d, that redemption of legal tenders be begun on the 4th day of May at New York, or other places also, if convenient, but that the power of reissue be continued; 3d, that some of the greenbacks be funded, if the condition of the currency, after resumption, seems to make that necessary; and that the National Banking Law be amended, 1st, by a provision that the 25 per cent. bank reserve be altogether in legal tenders; 2d, by a provision for the substitution of gold for greenbacks as a part of the reserve, whenever the success of redemption is fully assured. Mr. Opdyke has made a minority report in favor of the 3.65 convertible-bond plan, but the majority report has been adopted by the Chamber.

Last week was effected the final breach in the Hoosac Tunnel, which united the east and west headings, and thus virtually completed the second longest tunnel in the world. The distance pierced is nearly five miles; the Mont Cenis tunnel is half as long again, and occupied but a fraction of the twenty years required for the construction of the Hoosac. The natural difficulties, however, were at least as great in the latter case as in the former, the engineering quite as creditable; indeed, the alignment of the Hoosac was simply perfect. The success of the sub-Alpine tunnel, of course, was a great encouragement to the Massachusetts enterprise in its later stages, and but for the Italian example of rock-boring by machinery the older work would probably still be far from completion. The tenacity with which the State has clung to the project through all manner of adversity, is proof of a deep conviction of the necessity of the tunnel, and this will doubtless be fully justified. The actual cost of opening the tunnel (about ten million dollars) is greater than it might have been under other circumstances, yet hardly seems extravagant in itself, and still less so as the price of Massachusetts' maintaining her commercial rank in the Union. The State reluctantly assumed the task of a private corporation, to which it had originally loaned its credit. More than once the tunnel has loomed up as a great job in Massachusetts politics, and produced wide diversity and much bitterness of sentiment. Apparently, it is still to afford a basis for party differences, as the State's future relation to it remains undetermined.

M. Magne, the French Minister of Finance, has made his report to the Assembly, and a melancholy document it is. The total cost of the war, including everything, he estimates at \$1,484,000,000, or more than half our national debt, and it must be remembered that it was all incurred in a single year. The expenditure of 1874 will, it is calculated, be about \$540,500,000, or 43 per cent. more than in 1869, the year before the war, and this is only a rough estimate after all. What aggravates the situation is that the loan of over \$300,000,000 made by the Bank of France to the Government during the war, compelled that establishment to suspend specie payments, and this sum must be paid back before it can resume. The revenue for the coming year is only estimated at \$470,000,000, so there will be a heavy deficit; and this M. Magne proposes to meet by increased taxes on salt and sugar, and stamp duties, new or increased, on deeds, bills, and checks.

In the new Prussian Parliament, everything is likely to go as well as Bismarck could possibly desire. Liberalism in politics and religion has everywhere carried the day in the late elections. The numbers of the "Moderate Liberals" (the French Left Centre) have risen from 116 to 178. The Advanced Liberals (the Left) have risen from 50 to 71. The Moderate Conservatives (Right Centre), who vote with the Government on the ecclesiastical question, number 62, giving the Cabinet a majority of 311 out of a total of 432. The Conservatives (the Right), the old Junker party, have dwindled down from 69 to 9; the Ultramontanes proper have risen from 60 to 82; the remainder of the Opposition is made up of 17 Poles, who have neither lost nor gained, and 3 "Particularists," or States-Rights men—making in all 111. Besides these, there are ten independent members, or "savages" (*Wilden*), as they are called, who fight under no banner in particular, but generally support the Government on the church question. This question appears to have constituted almost the only issue at the elections, and it is their votes on this, in the last Parliament, which have caused the Conservatives to be almost swept out of existence, and have cut the Moderate Conservatives down from 84 to 62. The Danes have not held their own, but the Poles have, and the three "Particularists" include only one Protestant.

Strengthened in this way, the Government is likely to push on its warfare with the church more vigorously than ever. A bill providing for civil marriages, in order to get rid of the difficulty created

by the absence of priests in about one hundred parishes, is one of the promised measures of the coming session. Another bill is to be introduced empowering the Government to remove from their old places of abode, or even banish from the country, such deposed priests as it may consider mischievous. The proceedings against Archbishop Ledochowski have resulted in his removal from office and imprisonment. The Bishop of Trèves is likely to catch it for appointing clergymen without Government approval. The Bishop of Paderborn was sued by his chaplain for unjustifiable removal from office, but the bishop scornfully refused to answer, whereupon the police entered his palace, and took from his papers, for the use of the court, all that bore on the controversy. The Archbishop of Cologne has been so much frightened that he has stopped the sale of his official organ, in which he prints his excommunications, and only circulates it privately among the clergy, and the Archbishop of Breslau has humbly asked the approval of the civil authorities for his appointment of an assistant priest in his diocese. Nor is the warfare against the church confined to Prussia. In Hesse, a court composed of Catholic judges has just dismissed the suit of the local bishop against a Protestant clergyman for publishing a statement that the 'Moral Compendium' used in the Catholic divinity schools taught the morality of scoundrels. The Parliament of Brunswick, thanking the Emperor for his letter to the Pope, denounces the latter as an enemy of Christianity, bent on the enslavement of mankind. Worse still, the Austrian Minister of Public Instruction is introducing into the Reichsrath a set of bills for the regulation of ecclesiastical education and other church matters, modelled on those of Prussia, which has called forth, as a sort of protest against them, the publication of a letter denouncing the Prussian legislation, written in June last by Cardinal Rauscher, the Archbishop of Vienna.

The bill legalizing or making obligatory civil marriages—we do not yet know which it is—has more importance than appears on the surface. At present, every Prussian marriage has to be celebrated by a clergyman. There is no choice in the matter. More than this, every Prussian has to be baptized, whether he likes it or not. We hear of no change in the law with regard to the latter obligation, but presume it cannot long survive the abolition of the former one. The same thing may be said of the obligation to be buried in denominational cemeteries, of which the registries are kept by clergymen. At present, there are no others. There was considerable difficulty in obtaining the Emperor's consent to the institution of civil marriages, but it was at last extracted, and it will operate, it is thought, as the first step towards a total separation between church and state, which is what the advanced Liberals already demand. It will, too, release the sceptical element in the German population—which includes the great bulk of the educated classes—from what they have considered a most galling relation to the clergy.

The Austrian Empire has also just had its elections for the Reichsrath, which contains 353 members, who are now elected directly by universal suffrage, and not, as formerly, by the diets of the different provinces. The only great party line in Austrian politics is that between the friends of a strong central government and those of provincial independence, and the former have a majority of 228, though this does not, any more than in Prussia, give the Government a compact majority. The great question in Austria to-day, as here, is the financial question. Vienna is still prostrated by the languor and despair resulting from the panic of last spring, and the only hope of recovery seems to be in Government aid. Prussia recently offered the Viennese Treasury a loan of 200,000,000 thalers in silver, of which it has no longer any need, to enable it to resume specie payments, but this was, after consideration, declined, though it is now again talked of. Prussia, since she adopted the gold standard, has more silver than she knows what to do with, and finds the irredeemable paper of Austria a serious hindrance to commercial intercourse.

HOW SHOULD WE FIGHT SPAIN?

THE settlement of the *Virginius* affair, as reported from Washington, leaves little to be desired if the Madrid Government proves able to carry it into execution. Arbitration, or rather the decision of a mixed tribunal, is perhaps as good a way as could be desired of deciding whether the *Virginius* was a *bona-fide* American ship. If, however, it should prove that her papers were regular, and her owners really American, we shall at once be brought face to face with the question of our responsibility for her acts. And if it should appear, as is most likely, that she was a notorious filibuster, it will not be difficult for the Spaniards to make some very unpleasant demands on us, which we shall find it very difficult, under the Geneva rulings, to gainsay. If, on the other hand, her assumption of the American flag turns out to be fraudulent, and her designs against Cuba hostile, we shall have nothing to complain of beyond the summary execution of American citizens; and as this took place under a familiar Spanish custom, the most we can hope for is what the Government has demanded—the pecuniary provision out of the Spanish exchequer for the survivors. On the whole, we could not perhaps have hoped to reach any more satisfactory result than that actually attained, and Mr. Fish may fairly consider it another feather in his cap.

But while we are bound, if only on the principle that all is well that ends well, to give the Government all possible credit for the conduct of the negotiations, it is proper, for the benefit of the Congress which has just met, to call attention to the fact that we have been playing a very dangerous game, which might have placed us in a very embarrassing situation. We have made peremptory demands for satisfaction for an insult on a nation by no means blessed with wisdom, and just now in a very wild and irritable frame of mind, and have allowed a few days only for their consideration, and have backed them by an open threat of war in case of non-compliance by a certain day. Now there ought to be, as every one will admit, a certain relation between our diplomatic tone and our means of offence and defence. A nation may regulate its demeanor towards foreign powers either by Quaker principles or by feudal—that is to say, military—principles. It may adopt a policy of patience and long-suffering, and may rely wholly or in great part for redress of injuries on argument, or in appeals to the conscience or to the opinion of the civilized world; or it may adopt a policy based on the feudal theory of “honor,” or, in other words, the theory that in all disputes it is itself the sole and best judge of the extent of the injury received and of the nature of the atonement to be exacted, and that self-respect requires a prompt resort to force for the redress of wrongs. A nation which adopts the former of these policies can of course dispense with the maintenance of an army or navy. Even if the worst comes to the worst, and it is compelled to seek redress at the cannon’s mouth, it is bound to spend so much time in discussion that it will be able to raise an army or equip a fleet before it is necessary to come to blows. We did adopt this policy towards England in the *Alabama* controversy. The wrongs complained of were committed in 1862. We waited patiently for redress until 1870, and declared even then that we were ready to wait for an indefinite period, and that time and the general course of events were all the while demonstrating the justice of our demands. Under this precedent, the dissolution of our navy, and our indifference to the progress made in Europe in the construction of ships’ armor and marine artillery, were reasonable enough. Nobody, it was said, wanted war with England, and, considering what England had done, it was *a fortiori* improbable that we should ever need to go to war with anybody without three or four years’ notice.

A nation which adopts the latter policy, as France does and Prussia, for instance, is bound to be always ready to fight. It must have its ships of war afloat, and they must be of the most improved kind; it must have its soldiers and sailors trained and armed in the best manner, so that when it finds its honor hurt it can strike swiftly and destructively. It must, in short, do as gentlemen did in the days when disputes were not carried into the police court—keep its sword constantly by its side. If it is proud, punctilious,

touchy, it must, in order to avoid being ridiculous or getting into very bad scrapes, have constantly at hand the means of making its anger dreaded. In short, if we cultivate the military temper, we must cultivate military methods.

Now, in this Spanish embroglio we have acted on the latter policy. We have laid aside the philosophic air with which we pushed the *Alabama* negotiations, and taken the tone of peremptory indignation. We do not say this was not the best tone to take; in fact, we incline to believe that in the existing condition of Spanish affairs and of the Spanish mind it was the only tone to take, if we meant to look for redress at all, or prevent similar outrages in future. We are, therefore, not criticising the Government about it. But we wish to call the attention of Congress and the public to the enormous dangers to which, through their stupidity or indifference, this policy has exposed us. Mr. Fish has actually been threatening to fight a maritime power of considerable force, and to wrest from it an island, upon a few weeks’ notice, without having anything that can be called a navy at his command. In our day, nothing is a navy but iron-clads. Everybody knows this. The huge wooden screws which we send cruising round the world with so much pomp and pride, to protect our interests in foreign lands, and which are paraded in newspapers as terrible engines of war, are almost useless for military purposes. They belong to a class of ships which other governments have sold or are selling for firewood. In a naval action with modern men-of-war they would be sent to the bottom in five minutes. In a war with Spain, therefore, we should, in the absence of iron-clads, be driven immediately from the sea, and could only protect our ports by the use of torpedoes. Have we any iron-clads? We have a few. Of one of the best of them a naval officer remarked, with unconscious humor, in Washington the other day, that “he had no doubt she could be got to Cuba in calm weather.” There is not among them a sea-going vessel, fit to contend with the Spanish frigates. Here is what happened to one of the best of them when she tried to make her way down the coast the other day in tow of one of the wooden screws:

“U. S. STEAMER POWHATAN, via LEWES, Del., Nov. 28.

“After we passed the Capes of the Delaware on Wednesday night, the monitor *Manhattan* did very well in tow, the weather being favorable, until yesterday morning, when a strong southwest wind sprung up, with occasional squalls. The sea swept clean over her from stem to stern, upsetting the men at the wheel and carrying away the log-book. The ventilators, with the exception of one, were all washed away. A leak was sprung under the turret, through which the water poured in with alarming rapidity. Commander Yates expected the monitor would go down, and ordered the boats to be cleared and life-buoys distributed. Shortly after 9 A.M., however, Capt. Beaumont having turned the *Powhatan* before the wind, the *Manhattan* became easier. This was off Chincoteague buoy. The monitor being in a leaky condition, and her bilge-pumps having become choked, while everything and everybody on board were thoroughly drenched, it was considered advisable to return to the Delaware breakwater, which we did about dark last night, the *Manhattan* going inside, while we remained outside. The *Manhattan* will probably be ordered to Philadelphia for repairs.”

There is no reason to believe that any other monitor would, in like circumstances, fare one whit better, and in estimating the importance of this, it has to be borne in mind that to transport an army to Cuba, and supply it after it gets there, we must command the sea absolutely. As we now stand, unless the Spaniards should prove even more fatuous than they have yet shown themselves, it is hard to say where the fighting would be after we went to war. We could raise men enough to rid the island of the volunteers and regulars in a very few weeks, but how should we get at the volunteers and regulars?

An army, even when there are as many drilled soldiers and experienced officers in the country as we now have at command, takes some little time to equip and organize, but it is a very simple and easily prepared machine compared to a navy. A navy is the most costly, complicated weapon a nation can have. It takes years to construct it, and constant and elaborate care to keep it in a state of efficiency. If we deliberately make up our minds not to maintain one, however, we must also make up our minds to be very peaceable in our demeanor, and to bear insults and “outrages” and “dungeon” troubles patiently, and to give up the luxury of speedy vengeance, and to treat fiery patriots like Alexander H. Stephens,

who call for "war immediately if not sooner," as harmless lunatics. But there could hardly be a better illustration of the disappearance of foresight, judgment, and adult discretion and prudence among a certain class of our politicians, than the fact that one of the principal orators at the Cooper Institute "war meeting," a fortnight ago, was a member of Congress who has distinguished himself by his resistance to appropriations for the navy, and who two years ago made a desperate effort in the House to secure the extinction of the corps of marines. Nevertheless, on the occasion in question, he demanded war at once, and refused even to wait until Congress met. It will be found, too, by anybody who will take the trouble to watch Congressional proceedings, that the most blatantly bellicose members, the ones most jealous of the honor of the flag, most troubled about "the rights of American citizens," and readiest to hurl defiance at powerful foreign nations, and to encourage hostile expeditions directed against their territory, are the very men who most pertinaciously resist all rational preparation for war, such as the maintenance of an army or navy, experiments in gunnery, the support of schools for the training of officers, and the various other methods by which, as is now known to the civilized world, nations prepare themselves for fighting.

THE PENNSYLVANIA CONSTITUTIONAL CONVENTION VERSUS THE STATE OFFICERS.

AFTER having finished their projected draft of a constitution, the Pennsylvania convention passed an ordinance providing for its submission to the electors of the State for their approval or rejection. This ordinance, ignoring or disregarding the existing general statutes of the commonwealth, and even any particular statute which may have been passed in reference to the convention and its proceedings, contains a body of special rules touching the manner of conducting the election, the count of votes, and their return in the city of Philadelphia, and makes the convention itself, or a committee of it, a board of canvassers to examine the returns from the whole State. The object of this provision is well understood; in fact, it was openly proclaimed. Under the present constitution, legislative corruption had become notorious; the law-making power had for years been a mere instrument of advantage in the hands of private persons and corporations. Upon this foundation is built, not the supremacy of the Republican party, but the domination of the men who have obtained control of the machinery of the party. The proposed constitution, through its limitations upon the legislative power, which have been carefully prepared under the light furnished by a costly experience, and which are even more minute and peremptory than those contained in the latest constitution of Illinois, will destroy this stupendous evil. A result so much desired by all good citizens, and so necessary to the great commonwealth itself, is naturally dreaded by those persons who, obtaining and keeping power by means of the evil, seek to have it perpetuated. The word had therefore gone forth from the secret chambers of the Ring that the proposed constitution must be defeated at the polls; and the elections of the last few years make it clear that if the voting machinery of Philadelphia should be left in the hands which ordinarily manage it, an opposing majority adequate to the emergency could easily be returned from that city. Knowing these facts, the convention has undertaken to possess itself for the time being of this voting machinery, to supervise the election, to count the votes, and finally to examine the returns from the entire State. It thus seeks to ascertain the actual will of the electoral body, and to prevent the wholesale alteration of returns and falsifying of results which, in a representative government, is the most stupendous crime against society of which men can be guilty, more base and more dangerous even than treason. This action was not a scheme devised by one party to injure another, for the convention was decidedly Republican, and the ordinance received the assent of all the members except a few delegates from Philadelphia. The State officials, however, deny its validity, refuse to obey its directions, and are endeavoring to procure a decision of

the courts pronouncing it null and void. That the convention's plan should be successful so far as its immediate objects are concerned, must be the wish of all who hope for the overthrow of organized political corruption; but it may be possible that with the best of motives and for a most laudable purpose, the convention has overstepped the bounds of its own authority in such a manner and to such an extent that the ultimate consequences may be more disastrous than the present evil which it desires to remove. Whether there has been any such excess of authority or not, whether the ordinance of the convention is valid or void, are questions which involve the very bases of our peculiar civil polity. No portion of the American political system is more obscure than the functions of the constitutional convention regarded as a part of the orderly administration of government, as an instrument for the peaceful and legal reconstruction of the fundamental law. A correct conception of the logical position of the convention, and of the nature of the process by which a State constitution is framed and adopted, is not a mere abstraction; its practical importance equals if not excels its scientific interest; and it alone furnishes an answer to the specific questions which we have just proposed.

There are three conditions under which the ordinance may have been passed: (1) the act of the legislature which called the convention may have provided in express terms that the constitution was to be submitted to a popular vote in such manner and under such regulations as the latter body should determine; or (2) the act may have been wholly silent on that particular subject; or (3) the act may have provided in express terms that the submission was to be in accordance with some existing election laws, or in accordance with some regulations then prescribed, or thereafter to be prescribed, by the legislature. Where the first condition exists, no doubt can arise; the ordinance of the convention, having received the express approval of the legislature itself, must be valid, for there is no other body whose assent or sanction could in any event be necessary. The second and third conditions present the only difficulty, but they must be considered together, as they depend upon one and the same principle. The question is, Has the constitutional convention any such legislative authority? If it has not, the failure of the regular legislature to act in the matter would not clothe it with the authority; if it has, the assumption of the legislature to act in the matter would not necessarily take away the authority. Under which of these three conditions the Pennsylvania case falls, it may be difficult to determine with absolute certainty. Section 5 of the originating statute provides that "the convention shall submit the amendments agreed to by it to the qualified voters of the State, for their adoption or rejection, at such time or times, *and in such manner, as the convention shall prescribe.*" Standing alone, this section would be decisive. But Section 6 goes on to say that "the election to decide for or against the adoption of the new constitution shall be conducted as the general elections of this commonwealth are now by law conducted," and contains some details as to the manner of making the returns by the "election judges" (inspectors), and of opening, counting, and publishing them "as the returns for governor are now by law counted and published." While we do not think that, upon a fair comparison of these two sections, the latter one so limits the comprehensive language of the former as to take the case out from the first of the above conditions, or as to conflict with the terms of the ordinance passed by the convention, yet we prefer to base our discussion upon general principles rather than upon the particular language of the statute. As a striking illustration of the vicious theory which we combat, which exalts the legislature and makes it supreme not only over the convention, but even over the people acting in their organic capacity in the matter of establishing a fundamental law for themselves, we refer, in passing, to another clause of this statute which enacts "that the said convention shall not create, establish, or submit any proposition for the establishment of a court or courts with exclusive equity jurisdiction."

If we refer to precedents, the result is instructive. Prior

1867, seventy-eight constitutions had been submitted to the people for their approval, and the convention itself ordered and regulated the manner of the submission in sixty-three instances out of this whole number. In about one-half of these instances, the action of the convention was prescribed either by the State constitution or by the originating statute, but in the other instances there was no such direction, and the convention assumed the authority to be lodged in itself as an essential element of its existence and functions. While these precedents are not absolutely decisive, they show very clearly the opinions which have generally prevailed. After some variations of method, but still through a steady progress towards the full conception of the plan, the following has been established as the normal process of calling a convention to revise a State constitution and of adopting the scheme it prepares: The legislature passes a statute submitting to the electors the question whether a convention shall be held, which statute frequently, and perhaps usually, contains provisions for an election of delegates and other details, in case the popular vote is in the affirmative. The proposition of the legislature being approved, delegates are elected, who assemble and draft a constitution. This is submitted to the electors, and, if approved, becomes the fundamental law of the commonwealth. Such, we say, is now the normal process, and beyond a doubt it will in time be universally followed. It is true that in some instances the legislature has called a convention without the previous assent of the people, and it may be that in a few States the constitution expressly authorizes such a course; but these cases are certainly exceptional. If a State constitution is silent upon the subject, it is universally conceded that the legislature may lawfully take the initiative in the manner described.

What are the functions of the body thus authorized and created? It is said by one school of political theorists that the convention is clothed with all the sovereignty possessed by the people of the State which it represents; that its powers are, therefore, for the time being, unlimited except by the restrictions of the national Constitution; and that, as a necessary consequence, its work might be imposed upon the commonwealth without the form of a submission to the popular vote. Although this extreme theory has never been carried out to its full results in actual practice, it has invariably influenced and modified the action of State conventions. We believe that it is erroneous, and degrades instead of exalting the attribute of sovereignty; But we have no space in which to discuss or combat it, and shall only refer our readers to the able treatise of Mr. Jameson, in which it is successfully overthrown. But while refusing to the convention the possession of absolute sovereignty, Mr. Jameson is carried—and unnecessarily carried—by his argument to the opposite extreme, and denies that it possesses any inherent powers whatsoever. He even reaches the conclusion that it differs in no essential element from any voluntary assembly of citizens met for a peaceful and proper object. The error which underlies his whole discussion is his notion that the convention derives its authority from the legislature, his assumption that the legislature possesses as a part of its ordinary functions any capacity in the matter of amending or originating a constitution. The legislature is clothed with all powers of ordinary law-making, except as restrained by the national and State constitutions, but among these is not that of remodelling the organic law. As the only possible representative of the State, it takes the initiative, and gives an opportunity for the people in their organic capacity and in a formal manner to call and choose an assembly of delegates; but when this act has been performed, when this opportunity has been given, its function is gone, and its control over the process of constitution-making is ended. The convention once chosen derives all its powers from the people—not from the individual electors, but from the organic people who constitute the State. To speak in the technical terms of logic, the statute is the occasion, the will of the people as shown by the electors is the cause. What is delegated to this body? We answer, not any absolute sovereignty, but the exercise of that sovereignty so far as may be necessary to accomplish a double purpose—(1) the

framing a proposed constitution, and (2) the ascertaining in a formal and legal manner whether the people, through their constituted electors, will accept the proposed scheme and establish it as the fundamental law of the commonwealth. We concede that the convention does not possess the ordinary legislative function, that it cannot enact ordinary statutes, that it cannot invade the province of the government which exists by its side. It is not called into being to supplant, but to supplement the legislature, to do certain acts which are outside of, and to a certain extent antagonistic to, the proper business of the legislature. There is an evident incongruity in conferring upon the latter body the duty of working its own overthrow, by destroying the very foundation upon which it rests; and therefore the American system, through progressive steps, has finally contrived the convention as the sole depository of this extraordinary power.

Constitution-framing and constitution-establishing are not branches of the legislative function, and as the notion, at first somewhat dimly conceived, has been gradually developed and perfected, the people have retained those fundamental processes of government in their own hands, entrusting the preliminary work to their direct agents chosen for that specific object, but reserving to themselves the final and absolute voice in the act of adoption. It is a mistake, in analyzing this perfected system, to regard the convention as a mere committee employed to prepare a scheme of government and submit the same to the legislature. Its report is to the people, who are its only superiors. The theory which we thus reject might easily render the revision of a State constitution impossible, except by a revolution, since the legislature, by a repeal of the statute calling the convention, or by a refusal to submit its work to the electors, could at any time defeat the popular will. A doctrine which leads to such necessary results is plainly opposed to the American principles of government and notions of legislative subordination. The true theory, on the other hand, avoids all possible conflict between the various departments of the government, and is in strict harmony with our conceptions of popular sovereignty and of the law-making function. The constitutional convention exists for a definite purpose, and has such powers as enable it to accomplish that purpose independent of any other delegated body, and accountable to no one but its own creator—the people. This ultimate purpose has been already stated, and it is unnecessary to enumerate the incidental and minor powers which are embraced within it. If we are correct in this position, it follows as a necessary consequence that the legislature has rightfully nothing to do with the submitting the proposed constitution to the people either in substance or form; that subject, transcending its legitimate authority, belongs solely to the convention. Undoubtedly, in a very few instances, the legislature has assumed exclusive control and the convention has acquiesced, but these exceptions do not affect the principle. If, however, a conflict should arise—as perhaps in Pennsylvania—between the ordinance of the convention and the statute of the legislature, the latter must give way.

We remark, in conclusion, that every modern constitutional convention has consciously and avowedly adopted the view which we maintain in opposition to that advocated by Mr. Jameson.

CHURCH DISCIPLINE.

THE decision arrived at by Mr. Beecher's church on Wednesday of last week, in reply to the remonstrance received from the two sister churches in Brooklyn on the subject of ecclesiastical discipline, if acquiesced in, as it is not unlikely to be, by a good many others, will make a much greater charge than appears on the surface in the relations of Presbyterian and Congregational church organizations to the community at large. The controversy in question arose out of the refusal of Plymouth Church to investigate serious charges made against one of its members still on its lists. Instead of doing so, it allowed him to withdraw from connection with it of his own accord, and simply dropped his name from its list. The two other Congregational churches in Brooklyn thereupon protested against this, as contrary to Congregational usage, and as likely to cause scandal and bring discredit on the denomination; and this protest, after full deliberation in Plymouth Church, was treated by a heavy

majority as of no weight or effect. The most important feature in the debate was, however, Mr. Beecher's speech, in which he laid down certain doctrines, which to most people will be new, but which the church adopted, touching the nature of the church organization. His view of his church is, in substance, that it is simply an assemblage of persons taking an interest in spiritual things and desirous of hearing him preach. But he holds that it has no jurisdiction either of offences against morality or of departures from orthodoxy; that its doors are "as wide as humanity for entrance," and "wide as necessity for departure"; that, in short, it is none of the church's business what a member's way of life is, and that enquiries into his morals and manners, with the view of making him the subject of ecclesiastical discipline, are simply futile and mischievous; that the object of the church is to give as much in the way of edification to those who take pews in it as they are capable of receiving, but not to exercise any supervision over their lives, or make curious enquiries into the relation of their practice to their professions. It is true, he says, that people of "scandalous" lives ought to be expelled, but this concession is of little use without a definition of the term scandalous. The lives of some of the Plymouth Church members have of late years certainly caused scandal, as the term is ordinarily used, and yet have met with no church censure. The effect of this theory will be twofold. It will of course, in the first place, do away at once, as far as the churches adopting it are concerned, with the practice of granting dismissory letters, or certificates of "good and regular standing," to retiring members, so as to secure them admission to other churches, because under it such certificates will mean nothing. In the second place, it will, as regards the community at large, act as a formal abandonment of the theory which has played so large a part in English and American history—that there is a real distinction displaying itself by outward marks between members of Congregational churches and the world outside. According to this theory, the church was composed of a body of persons who had not only embraced certain beliefs with regard to Christ's character and mission, but had, as a consequence or accompaniment of those beliefs, undergone certain changes of hopes, desires, tastes, and aims, implied in the term "conversion" or "change of heart," which created a real line of demarcation and a real difference of standards between them and their non-religious neighbors; and this change, and this alone, constituted fitness for participation in the sacrament of the Lord's Supper. The tests of the change were two in number, and the only possible tests, viz.: the convert's own account of his state of feeling and of his opinions on religious subjects, and his general conduct in the discharge of his various duties in life. One of these would not have been accepted without the other. Professions of faith would not have been accepted without amendment in action, or amendment in action without such an account of the motives to it as would satisfy the church that these motives were Christian—that is, had their root in certain recognizable views of Christ's character and mission.

It is hardly necessary to say that this was not and is not the Catholic or Anglican view of church-membership. To explain in detail why it was not would lead us into fields which it is none of our business to explore. But we may mention, as the chief reason, the fact that the Catholic and Anglican conception of the church is that of a body of clergymen, commissioned to preach, to baptize, marry, and bury the rest of the world; by whom, in the Anglican Church, the co-operation of the laity is accepted in a reluctant, half-hearted way, and in the Catholic Church not at all. In England, every man is, in law, a member of the national church, whatever his character or beliefs may be; and the tolerant view of what constitutes a Christian life which this has bred, has not unnaturally, though under widely different circumstances, been perpetuated by the Episcopal Church here. As regards the Catholic Church, it is a necessary deduction from its claims that all men are members of it. They may be bad or good, pious or unbelieving, but they are Catholics of some kind all the same, and whether they will or no. The bad behavior of a Catholic layman consequently reflects no discredit on the Catholic Church. It does not pretend to be an organization composed of repentant or believing persons. It is an organization of priests commissioned to teach religion and morality, and administer the sacraments, to every body who can by hook or by crook be made amenable to their jurisdiction.

What we have been saying as to the Congregational Church is true, with some modifications, of the Presbyterian, Baptist, and Methodist churches. Membership in them all held to be an outward and visible sign of an inward change, affecting not only opinions but conduct. The congregations are, in short, not simply audiences, but parts of an organization existing partly in this world, and partly in the world to come, and in the enjoyment of certain spiritual relations with God and Christ not partaken of by the world at large. The position taken by Plymouth Church, however, repudiates this theory *in toto*. What it says is that church members may or may

not be Christians or good men; about that it does not concern itself. The one thing certain is that they like to come to the building on Sunday, and are strong in their devotion to philanthropic enterprises. In short, the church is not an institution. Its members are not held together by any visible bond. They are persons who like to expose themselves to spiritual influences, but have nothing to say as to the effect of these influences on their character.

Some one has said that this is putting the church on "a democratic basis," which is true; but then, it is by introducing into the church organization that feature of democracy which gives cause for a very large part of whatever apprehension exists as to the future of modern society. One of the greatest helps to conduct—which, as Matthew Arnold says, is three-fourths of life—in the ancient and mediæval world, was the close dependence of men on each other created by various artificial arrangements. Everybody was a member of some small organization, whose interests took his thoughts off himself, of whose honor he was jealous, and whose opinion stimulated him in any course of action which its code prescribed as best. He belonged to a small tribe, or state, or guild, or commune, or order, in which he was every day reminded of his dependence on his fellow-men, in which he lived under continual observation, which exacted of him continual sacrifice of self, and whose concentrated censure he dared not face. The result was that, in spite of barbarism and insecurity, great ideals were kept alive, and great types of character were produced in every age. In the modern world, all these have disappeared. The only organization the modern man belongs to is the nation, and when nations contain thirty millions of persons, each one's sense of obligation to it is apt to be very slight. Public men have ceased to be responsible to anybody but "the people," and the people is so vast and busy that responsibility to it is hardly more burdensome than responsibility to Posterity, or the True, or the Good. Public opinion, too, is expressed through so many organs, and is distracted by so many objects, and is made up of so many influences, that it is all but impossible to concentrate it with any force on any one man's deeds or misdeeds. Society every day comes nearer to a promiscuous crowd, each individual of whom supplies his own tests of conduct, and his own aims in life, and lets the others go their way. The one institution which has come down to our time as an artificial check on wrong-doing or stimulus to decent behavior, is the church as the Puritans set it up. It is (if we except the Quakers) the only organization which has professed to exact more than common decency of men engaged actively in the busy work of life, and exposed daily to its trials and temptations. It took the best moral opinion of the day, and brought it to a focus, so that it was felt, not simply by society at large, but by A and B, and opposed a practical and visible obstacle to their cheating and lying and licentiousness, by making the disgrace of it prompt and tangible. There is nobody who has fairly considered the temptations of our time but must regret deeply that the process of social disintegration which has already worked so much mischief, and has even attacked the family, should have reached religious organizations, and dissolved one of the most successful. What has occurred in Brooklyn will be taken, however, as a frank confession that what so many men of the world have maintained, is true—that church-membership was no guarantee of purity of character. Perhaps it was not; perhaps it was folly for any tribunal to sit on the condition of a man's heart; but this is hardly a reason for resolving itself into a simple public meeting. It might, if it cannot exact holiness, at least exact, and successfully exact, decency of life, by judging and casting out slanderers, cheats, forgers, blackmailers, adulterers, and peddlers of worthless securities. The Stock Exchange does something of this kind, and so do most clubs; can it be that we are about to witness a formal confession by religious bodies, not only that we are all sinners, but that in democratic communities one sinner is just as bad as another, and that the difference between robbery and petulance is not worth a Christian man's notice?

ENGLAND

LONDON, November 14, 1873.

WE are sick of this miserable Ashantee war before it has begun, and our only comfort is to know that, for better or for worse, it must be over and done with before next Easter. Lord Grey has contributed two depressing letters to the literature of West Africa, written in that vein of soured self-sufficiency and dyspeptic dissatisfaction which has characterized all the speeches of that noble veteran since he found himself consigned to the wax-work exhibition of old Whigs. Lord Grey desires to prove that all our troubles on the Gold Coast have arisen from the abandonment of the policy which he initiated but could not carry out. And what do you suppose this policy was to have been? The simplest matter in the world. The Governor of the Gold Coast settlements was to have founded a free confederation of Fantee and other adjacent tribes, under the quasi-protectorate of the British

flag, and to have taught these interesting pupils to live and flourish under a parliamentary system of their own, after the model of the British Constitution. There was to be no annexation of territory, and the protectorate was to be purely Platonic; but the Fantees and the rest of our allies were to be "advised" by agents of the British Governor, and taught to behave like good Christians and good Whigs. This admirable policy of Lord Grey's is unfortunately out of date, and no longer practicable in present circumstances. The first thing we have to do now is to thrash the Ashantees into submission, and then it will be time enough to consider the question—what next? You may be sure that we are more anxious to get out of a bad business than to extend our responsibilities in that quarter. Lord Derby's opinion, that "we have quite black men enough," will probably prevail. But I doubt whether Lord Kimberley will come very well out of the debate next session. The manner in which the Dutch settlements were taken over, and the withdrawal of the West Indian regiments without having ascertained the sentiments of the Ashantee King, and almost on the eve of a threatened insurrection of the annexed population, are points which can hardly escape animadversion, however speedily and victoriously the campaign may be disposed of.

The new law appointments are not yet completed. Sir John D. Coleridge accepts the Chief-Justiceship of the Common Pleas; he will preside over that court with grace and dignity, sum up and pass sentence with unexceptionable suavity, and wear his robes like one to the manner born. Mr. Henry James becomes *per saltum* Attorney-General; and it is said that Mr. Vernon Harcourt will be offered the Solicitor-Generalship. Should he accept it, he will bring to the post qualifications which his colleague does not possess, as a scientific jurist, a professor of ecclesiastical law, and an earnest law reformer. Having abandoned the parliamentary bar for a seat in the House of Commons, he had almost given up forensic practice, and was supposed to be looking rather to a political than a professional career. His success in the House of Commons has been considerable as a vigorous and powerful speaker, and a sarcastically independent critic of ministerial blunders and shortcomings. His seat at Oxford is, I fancy, almost if not absolutely safe, though the influence of his relatives at Nucham goes against him. Even his acceptance of a law appointment would not perhaps disqualify him for taking political office in a future administration if he should prefer the Treasury to the Judicial Bench.

Mr. Fitzjames Stephen, whom the Government are very anxious to provide with a seat in the House of Commons, and who at this moment would be Attorney-General had he succeeded the other day as a candidate for Dundee, has been delivering a couple of lectures at Edinburgh on the defects of parliamentary government—a good topic for an unsuccessful candidate, but an odd argument for a lawyer who desires to be a legislator. Mr. Stephen was admirably fitted for the post of legal member of the Legislative Council at Calcutta, and he would make a most valuable law officer in a government charged with large measures of law reform. And he is so much more than a mere practising barrister who makes Parliament a half-way house to the Bench, that all law reformers would be glad to see him on the Bench engaged in administering justice under the new system which the Judicature Act will bring into operation. He is unquestionably a man of rare intellectual force and accomplishments, with enormous capacities and an insatiable appetite for the hardest and toughest work. It would be a pity that such faculties should not be utilized for the public good in England as they were in India, and no doubt his opportunity is soon to come.

The first edition of Mill's 'Autobiography' has been rapidly exhausted. The volume is found to be as readable as a romance. It is the absolutely truthful confession of a life-experience perhaps unique, and it is discussed in many circles as keenly as the last new religion or the last social scandal. Did you ever hear the story of Mill calling upon Carlyle to tell him that the MSS. of the first volume of the 'History of the French Revolution' had been used to light the fires by a servant in Mrs. Taylor's house? Mrs. Carlyle came down into the historian's study, and found him attempting to console the philosopher, who, with his face covered by his hands, was sobbing like a child. Mrs. Carlyle, not knowing the cause of this terrible grief, ran out to the gate where Mrs. Taylor was sitting in her carriage, and said to her, "I do hope, my dear, you have not left your husband." By the bye, a reviewer of the 'Autobiography' in the *Pall Mall* thinks it his duty to raise a protest, on behalf of society, against Mill's interpretation of that exceptional and decisive episode in his career.

Among the productions of the publishing season which has just begun, perhaps the most important is one which appears to-morrow. I refer to Mr. G. H. Lewes's first volume of the great work which has occupied his thoughts and engaged his researches during the past five-and-twenty years. The title he has given to the completed work is 'Problems of Life and Mind,' but the volume now published is only the first of three or even four, and its subject is "Foundations of a Creed." You know that Mr. Lewes was one of the

earliest disciples and expounders of Auguste Comte's Positive philosophy in this country, and one of those disciples who parted company with his master when the latter erected his philosophical system into a hierarchical religion. In the 'Problems of Life and Mind,' traversing the border-land of physiology and psychology, and unfolding a new rule of faith and conduct, and a new conception of man's relation to the universe from which the supernatural is altogether excluded, Mr. Lewes strikes at the root of the conventional theologies; and perhaps one ought not to wonder that Mr. Blackwood, of Edinburgh, should have been so startled by a perusal of the proof-sheet of the first chapter as to beg his friend the author to excuse him from undertaking the responsibility of issuing it in the name of a Tory and orthodox firm. Mr. Trübner, the eminent publisher of Ludgate Hill, is not so readily frightened by heterodox opinions, and accepted the book gladly without an instant's hesitation. It is written in too severely scientific a spirit and purpose to be light or popular reading; and I need hardly add that it has all the clearness and the charm of style of which the biographer of Goethe has the secret, and that its perfect courage is never disfigured by a single word that can shock the most reverent of thinkers. Heterodoxy, however, to say the truth, is gaining ground every day in this country. In proof of this, let me point to the article on Strauss in the last *Edinburgh*; a passionate defence of the faith which, in order to save the ship, throws overboard the Book of Genesis, the law, the prophets, original sin, and the necessity of baptism to salvation.

The Roman Catholic Church appears to be unwilling to leave the defence of the faith in England in the hands of heretics. Dr. Newman some years ago asked the Pope for leave to found a college at Oxford. The site was bought and the building was planned, when the Pope changed his mind, withdrew his consent, and formally disapproved the project of mixed university education in a Protestant country. Dr. Newman retired to the Oratory at Edgebaston, near Birmingham, where he still presides as head-master over an excellent school, at which many of our aristocratic and middle-class Catholic youth have received a thoroughly manly English education and a sound classical training under accomplished tutors, some of whom are seceders from the Anglican Church. And now Dr. Newman's contemporary at Oxford, Archbishop Manning, under the express sanction of Pius the Ninth, is engaged in founding and organizing a distinct Roman Catholic university, to which the great Catholic colleges of Stonyhurst and Oscott will be affiliated, and at which the young Catholic noblemen and gentlemen will be trained to compete on equal terms in after-life with the graduates of Oxford and Cambridge. Archbishop Manning, you know, is an Ultramontane and Infallibilist to the core, and consequently in the highest favor at the Vatican. This separation of the youth of the two churches in England is according to the Syllabus, which condemns mixed education and mixed marriages. A few undergraduates, belonging to old Catholic families, are to be found at Oxford, both at Balliol and at Christ Church, in spite of the interdict. The establishment of this new university is a gigantic enterprise. The cost of the buildings alone will not be inconsiderable, and think of the endowments that will be required for exhibitions, scholarships, fellowships, and the professorate. It is not to be a theological university; the tutors are to be laymen, and most of the professors also; and the discipline is not to be semi-monastic, but such as befits young men who are going into a busy world. The Principal, of course, will be a priest, and Monsignor Capel, the famous and fashionable confessor and preacher, whom Mr. Disraeli introduced by an accident into the pages of 'Lothair,' and who did actually convert the Marquis of Bute, is designated, with the usual sagacity of the Vatican in such matters, to fill a post for which it would be impossible to choose a fitter or an abler candidate. Where the professors of natural science and moral philosophy are to come from remains to be seen; dogmatic theology and canon law and church history will take care of themselves. There can be no doubt that this university is designed to play a great part in that reconversion of England which is being continually prayed for at a thousand altars, and will probably be prayed for until the arrival of Lord Macaulay's New Zealander on London Bridge.

Notes.

WE are desired to remind the sculptors of the country of the existence and aims of the Fairmount Park Art Association. Fairmount Park is, as most of our readers are aware, the park of Philadelphia, and second to no other in the United States. The association just named, of which Mr. Anthony J. Drexel is President, and whose other officers and trustees are among the leading men of the city in wealth and public spirit, has a membership of over nine hundred persons. It is now in its third year, and has for its object to "contribute a statue, or some other work of art, for the adorn-

ment of Fairmount Park, at least once in every year." Already it has set up a life-size bronze figure of "Night," and a life-size "Group of Wolves," by Kemeys, also in bronze. It would commonly prefer to employ American talent in its commissions, though it does not choose thus to restrict itself. Any artist with a design to propose will be sure of attention, and may address Mr. John Bellangee Cox, Secretary, 723 Walnut Street, Philadelphia.—The Second Biennial Report of the Commissioners of Public Charities for the State of Illinois is accompanied by three colored statigraphic charts, a kind not often met with in our social statistics. The first two show to the eye, by means of figures constructed about a central axis, the distribution by age and sex of insanity, idiocy, blindness, and deaf-mutism in Illinois and in the United States for the years 1860 and 1870. From these it appears that, both in the larger and the smaller territory, more males than females are afflicted by these diseases, except in the case of insanity, where the females slightly preponderate. On the other hand, except in the case of deaf-mutism (for 1870), the ratio of afflicted is larger in Illinois than in the country generally—at least for the ages at which insanity, idiocy, etc., are most prevalent. The third chart exhibits, by means of circles, the aggregate number of the insane, etc., of the United States, according to the last census, by sex, color, and nativity.—The utility of some of the recent modes of permanent photography is well exhibited in "Memoranda No. 15," just issued by the U. S. Ordnance Department. The mode employed appears to be one of the forms of the Albert-type process, though whether Mr. Bierstadt's or Mr. Rookwood's we cannot determine. Here are some hundreds of views of as many different breech-loading arms, with all their parts detached and numbered, photographed on the same page with the printed text describing the parts. The most famous American and Continental arms are thus accurately represented (though not in every case with the same clearness as in a good mechanical wood-engraving); and this feature, to say nothing of the reports of experiments, makes the volume highly valuable for comparison and reference.—Roberts Bros. will publish in this country the "Personal Recollections, from Early Life to Old Age," of the late Mary Somerville.—A "Life of Samuel Johnson, D.D.," first president of Columbia College, and not unworthy of his name, is in the press of Hurd & Houghton. The author is Dr. E. E. Beardsley.—The recent change of ownership of the *Atlantic Monthly* is not, as some have thought, equivalent to a transfer to New York, and a consequent proof of the absorbing tendency of this metropolis. The editorship and literary corps remain exactly the same; the printing will still be done in Cambridge, though henceforth at the Riverside Press; and the publishers' imprint will put Boston at the front, and New York in the second place.—Shepard & Gill announce for immediate publication "The Little People of God, and What the Poets have said of Them," a collection of poems about children for the lovers of children, containing a new poem by Mr. Whittier, written expressly for the volume; also, a work by Rev. Dr. Lorimer, of Boston, called "Under the Evergreens; or, A Night with St. Nicholas."

—*Wilkes's Spirit* accuses us of "servile plagiarism" of its long review of the Rev. W. H. H. Murray's "Perfect Horse"—a review which we now read for the first time, and which appeared in its issue of November 1, our own appearing on the 13th. It is enough to say that our notice had been in type at least a fortnight before it was printed, and had been composed exactly as it was printed at least three weeks in advance of publication. *Wilkes's Spirit* therefore behaves abominably in saying that "the *Nation* reviewer derived all his knowledge of the book and the subject from our columns." The coincidences pointed out were owing to the fact that the errors were obvious to any one familiar with the subject.

—One aspect of the Tweed régime in this city has not had much attention, but it is of social importance, and ought to be well understood. It was never surprising to learn that a certain set of Tweed's friends had presented him with "a rich service of plate, beautifully ornamented with the arms of the Marquis of Tweeddale." The gentlemen who subscribed on such occasions knew all about the Boss, and did not know all about the Marquis of Tweeddale; and the plate which they were wise enough in their generation to buy they ornamented in the manner that seemed to them good, and everybody was satisfied—the Boss himself for one, and, for the others, the O'Briens, Creamers, Genets, Loews, Comans, Cardozos, Watsons, Mike Nortons, Hank Smiths, Tim Campbells, Oakey Halls, Bernard Smyths, Richard O'Gormans, and Edward J. Shandleys, who got offices, and, in due return for them, bought silver services, and set on foot associations for the purpose of erecting statues to their senator and supervisor. The names that we have just quoted are all to be found in a list of the officers and trustees of the Tweed Testimonial Association—a society formed some three years since, and which had "for its object the erection of a statue of Hon. William M. Tweed in consideration of his services to the Commonwealth of New York."

Nothing else was to have been expected than that such names should have been found in such places. The strange thing was to know that the Ring of which these men were part and parcel should be able to secure the tacit or open support of men of character and respectability so high that the tameness of their acquiescence in Tweed and Sweeny's rule was the wonder of their neighbors and acquaintances. But the Ring's power in its various details was not comprehended by the public. It is only lately that there has been any public mention of one of Tweed's most potent means of coercion, and but a moment's consideration of one of the little-known weapons in his armory may probably bring about a reversal of judgment in numerous cases, to the real state of which no clue has hitherto been visible. The Ring was composed not merely of jolly, champagne-drinking club-men of the Americans Club, with "hearts as big as meeting-houses," as their friends used to say, and a fondness for clapping "the boys" on the back, and going with them to chowder parties; nor of good-natured, fighting politicians; nor of easy-going fellows who, because the public treasury lay invitingly open, naturally of course put in their hands—as who wouldn't?—but meant no great harm by it, and did nobody much hurt. Whenever the occasion called for cold-blooded cruelty, they could be as remorseless and as deliberately flinty-hearted as Jonathan Wild himself. For instance, one of the mainstays of their power is now said to have been their possession of the archives of the District Attorney's office. Most families have their secrets, of one kind and another, which it is desirable, for various reasons, that the general public should not know; and in a certain amount of cases some record of such secrets, involving a son, perhaps, or a cousin, a brother, an uncle, a wife, or what not, has found its way into the office of the public prosecutor, or, if not, can be made to find its way there. Armed with this means of inducing tractability, and employing it with native brutality and callousness to decency, it is no wonder if the Ring was able to enrol among its plate-buyers, statue-projectors, voters, legislators, and nominal friends and supporters, numbers of men who detested it as bitterly as ever did its most vigorous open assailants. In the nature of the case, there is an insurmountable difficulty about determining the extent to which this particular species of tyranny was employed; but that it was a great deal employed is asserted on good authority.

—The enormous convenience of decimal fractions, in computations great and small, makes it quite proper to honor duly the inventor of them. There has been no difficulty in recognizing him in Simon Stevin, of Bruges, whose tract published in 1585 was entitled the "Disme." Using circles in place of parentheses, he wrote 27.947 as 27 (0) 8 (1) 4 (2) 7 (3), and read it as 27 commencements, 8 primes, 4 seconds, 7 thirds. Dispute has arisen concerning the origin of the simpler notation by means of the decimal point, whether used before the fraction alone, or as separating it from the integer. Napier's claim to their discovery (as if the invention of logarithms were not glory enough for him) has been contested by De Morgan; but Mr. Glaisher, in a paper read before the mathematical section of the British Association, and since printed in *Nature* (Oct. 16), seems to establish his priority in introducing the decimal point into arithmetic. The full modern use of it, it is true, was first exemplified in a posthumous work of Napier's called "Mirifici Logarithmorum Canonis Constructio," edited by his son in 1619, where the formal definition of the decimal separator is given and illustrated, and the point subsequently used in operations as we now use it. Briggs, who died in 1631, constantly used an underscored line to distinguish the decimal part of a number; and Oughtred, one of his followers, improved on this by using, together with the line, a vertical bar to mark the separation still more clearly. "On the whole, therefore," says Mr. Glaisher, "it appears that both Napier and Briggs saw that a mere separation to distinguish integers from decimals was quite sufficient, without any exponential marks being attached to the latter; but that Napier used a simple point for the purpose, while Briggs employed a bent or curved line, for which in print he substituted merely a horizontal bar subscript to the decimals." It is further pointed out, as "not a little remarkable, that the first separator used (or, more strictly, one of the first two) should have been that which was finally adopted after a long period of disuse. All through the seventeenth century exponential marks seem to have been common."

—We recently called attention to a valuable article in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, by A. Geffroy, upon the Germanic Conquest. Two other articles, of somewhat earlier date in the same periodical, will be of interest to those who follow the discussions upon the history of landed property. In the *Revue* of May 15, Prof. Fustel de Coulanges has one of his brilliant and instructive articles on "Landed Property in the Roman Empire and the Merovingian Period." He develops with great clearness the position which landed property held in Roman society, and his sketch of the colonial system is striking and novel. The discussion of the beneficiary system in that time is able, but he makes no reference to the great work of Roth upon

this subject, and does not seem even to be acquainted with it. This portion of the article is therefore of less value, for while his facts are not inconsistent with Roth's views, his theories are; and certainly these views must be either accepted or disproved by any one who undertakes to write upon the subject. In the *Revue* for June 1 is an article by Emile Laveleye upon the Allmends of Switzerland, a topic touched upon, but not exhausted, by Von Maurer in his works on the *Mark* system. M. Laveleye has done for the French what Mr. Maine has done for the English in popularizing the results of Von Maurer's investigations. Last year he had a series of articles in the *Revue* containing probably as good a general sketch of the subject as exists. The present article is in continuation of this subject; but the writer was especially drawn to it by practical considerations. In the well-balanced, conservative democracy of the Swiss cantons, he sees a possible remedy for the destructive shapes that radical democracy is prone to in more artificial communities. The early migrations of the Slavonic populations, which have been the subject of much controversy, have been ably treated in a treatise by Rösler, whose 'Romanische Studien' we noticed last year. He appears to have proved that, while their movement westward from their original seats on the Dnieper took place as early as the fifth century, they did not cross the Danube until the middle of the seventh; up to this time, the Greek Empire maintained that line. Among other points, he successfully attacks the alleged Slavonic origin of the Emperor Justinian.

—A curious collection, illustrating the Franco-German war from a literary and artistic point of view, is now to be seen in the Royal Library of Berlin. It was the accumulation of the Emperor, through gifts and purchases, and contains every accessible production of the press, of the pencil, and of photography, from German, French, English, American, and Italian sources, that was called forth by the war, or that can serve in any way to represent its passing phases. The Emperor has made over the collection to the Library, and, before being deposited in its permanent alcoves, it has been placed on exhibition as a whole in the main hall. First of all is the library of the war—rows upon rows of volumes upon its general history; upon the special history of the army; the history and achievements of particular regiments, battalions, detachments, corps; the official reports of battles and sieges; popular descriptions of the same, as, for instance, the war correspondence of the London *Daily News*; volumes upon Elsass and Lothringen; upon the sanitary work in the army; upon transportation, railways, signals, ballooning, telegraphy, and the chaplaincy. Then come poems and romances founded upon the war, biographical sketches, speeches, addresses, documents, collections of telegrams, bulletins, proclamations, etc. Next in order are complete sets of illustrated journals, conspicuous among which are *Harper's Weekly* and the London *Illustrated News*. Another department consists of maps, plans, pictures, photographs, etc., exhibiting all the phases of army-life—the march, the bivouac, the camp, the siege, the battle—and under these are innumerable photographs of persons, incidents, movements, which some occasion had made prominent. The most interesting feature of this collection, and one which will be of special value to the historian, is the French literature of the siege and of the Commune; the journals, the pamphlets, the sketches, the photographs, the caricatures, representing every phase of Parisian life during those memorable months, and giving a view of French politics and of French character even more vivid and more complete than that revealed by Bazaine's trial. The Emperor of Germany has been at much pains to collect all the caricatures of himself, and the rabid and even blasphemous diatribes upon himself and his army, in which French wit and hatred found vent during the war; and these he now deposits in the literary archives of Berlin as an episode of his reign. This whole collection forms a library of itself, and increases the demand for a commodious fire-proof library building, to contain the treasures now crowded into a wing of the royal palace at Berlin.

GEORGE GROTE.*

AUSTIN, Grote, and John Mill will live in literature as the representatives of the philosophic radicals. They all possessed the marked peculiarities and the equally remarkable virtues of their school. They were all strict utilitarians, strict sensualists in philosophy, and political economists in politics. Their radicalism was not the offspring of ardent sentiment, nor grounded on any enthusiastic belief in the people, but was the result of their general philosophical theories. They all, therefore, consistently enough, in youth were the assailants of the established order of things, whilst advocating reforms, such as the amendments of the poor law, which were far more unpopular than the abuses which they assailed; and in advanced life showed

* The Personal Life of George Grote. Compiled from family documents, private memoranda, and original letters to and from various friends. By Mrs. Grote. London: John Murray.

in some respects a tendency towards a kind of conservatism, without sharing any of the admiration for the past or satisfaction with the present state of society which are ordinary characteristics of Tories. They all, again, had a certain similarity in the tone or color of their minds. Though avowed utilitarians, and, therefore, making happiness the end of life, they each betray a vein of feeling which has more similarity to stoicism than to the popular conception of epicureanism. They all, further, exhibited an amount and kind of pure disinterested public spirit which had very rarely been displayed by any school of philosophers or politicians. Each of them, further, extended the doctrines of their philosophy with marked success to different fields of thought. Austin revived the study of jurisprudence, Grote gave new life to the investigation of ancient history, and Mill applied to logic and political economy the doctrines which he had learnt from Bentham and his father. But though no three men of equal ability could easily be found who possessed more traits in common, it would be difficult to exaggerate the essential differences of their personal character; and it is very curious to note, now that in the case of two of them, at least, their private life has been laid more or less before the public, the way in which these differences told on the whole of their careers. If an observer looks at the intellectual results of their efforts, he will find it impossible to deny that they each of them achieved as great a success in promoting the spread of the doctrines in which they believed as any theorist can hope to achieve. But, except in the case of Grote, it is hard to look upon their lives as successful in the attainment of happiness. Austin lived under a sense of having failed to produce any effect on the world at all in proportion to the greatness and originality of his powers; was tormented through life by indignation at the folly and perversity "of the great confederacy of fools" in general, and of English lawyers in particular; and died too soon to see the brilliant result of his labors. Mill's life, as painted in his autobiography, was certainly not such an intellectual tragedy as that of Austin, and he must have died with the well-warranted conviction that he had not lived in vain. But his life has its side of sadness. His retirement to Avignon looks like an exile, and it is difficult not to feel that an incongruity between the man's dispositions and his philosophic creed made his existence at times rather struggle than a triumph. The strongest impression left, on the other hand, by the annals of Grote's life is its completeness and absolute success as far as regarded the attainment of its objects. In the records of his early youth you could trace feelings of discontent or dissatisfaction. But on the death of his father he "found himself set free to act whatever part his choice might dictate," and, as his wife remarks, "in the mature period of his life George Grote followed the dictates of his own self-knowledge, and they directed him wisely." This sentence might, in fact, be the motto of his biography, for it strikes its key-note. The marked individual feature by which Grote is distinguished is the honesty, vigor, and firmness with which he followed the dictates of his own self-knowledge. It is impossible not to fancy that he derived something from his German ancestors. In everything he did, and still more what he avoided doing; in his slow, elaborate self-culture, in his utter absence of intellectual hurry, in his studious tastes, in his passion for music, as well as in his firm, tenacious, and, it must be added, intolerant adherence to opinions once adopted, it is at any rate easy to imagine that you trace the qualities of his grandfather from Bremen. His calmness and complete self-knowledge stand in curious contrast with some of the characteristics of his celebrated friends. No man had a more stern contempt for doctrines or views at variance with his principles; but one can hardly conceive that Grote could under any circumstances have let his life be fretted away by indignation at the folly of mankind. No man, again, strove to make his life conform more sincerely to certain principles, but it is hard to believe that Grote ever went through the sort of moral and intellectual crises which marked parts of Mill's career. His calmness and self-knowledge are the good side of some deficiencies in his character; for both Austin and Mill, if they had not all the strength of Grote, certainly were capable of entering into feelings which it may be suspected could hardly be realized by a man of his solid, quiet German temperament. But when the merits and defects of a character like Grote's are carefully weighed, few readers of his life will feel inclined to deny an abundant tribute of admiration to the man whose self-knowledge guided him with such singular wisdom.

In nothing does Grote's personal character appear to greater advantage than in his political career, though this was in one sense the least successful part of his life. He had, certainly, many qualifications for playing a distinguished part in politics. Though known to the world in 1832 as an extreme radical, he possessed at bottom a moderation of sentiment which is essential to a statesman. Any one who, in 1873, reads Grote's address to the electors of London will be surprised, not at the violence, but at the calmness of its tone. The address does not contain the slightest appeal to popular passion or, it may be

added, to popular sympathy. All the reforms which the radical banker advocates are of a matter-of-fact and somewhat prosaic character. He urges the importance of removing taxes on knowledge; of lightening taxation; of exchanging the corn-laws for a moderate fixed duty; of regulating the constitution of the East India Company; and of simplifying the law. He issues a programme which might have been, and perhaps was, written in the study of James Mill, and which is as dry and precise as the writings of the philosopher whose influence is traceable in every line of the address, just as it is traceable in every one of George Grote's opinions. Nor was he deficient in political foresight. Every one of the reforms advocated in his address have now been carried, and various instances occur in his biography of the soundness of his judgment about questions which could be decided by reference to the rules of plain common-sense. Thus, though a close friend of De Tocqueville, he pronounced, on the very day after the *coup d'état*, a judgment on De Tocqueville and his associates which is worth quoting for its sagacity and its application to the present condition of France:

"They have been helping, and even outrunning, the President for the last two years in crushing everything like public liberty and popular force. They have done this without seeing that the popular force formed the only security to themselves as against him, and that, as soon as they ceased to have a spirited and free-spoken political public under them, they were at the mercy of the executive power, even for their own personal safety. This is a terrible lesson which they are now taught when it is too late. Tocqueville and all the rest of them, in their intense fear and hatred of the Republican party, have been just acting in such a way as to prepare France for that military despotism which now menaces the country."

Mr. Grote also was, if not the orator which he appeared to his wife, certainly an efficient speaker. He was, moreover, well versed in business, and would have made a far more capable Chancellor of the Exchequer than any of the gentlemen whose financial blunders brought discredit on the Reform government. Mr. Grote would, in short, it may be conjectured, have displayed in office very much the qualities which distinguished his most intimate friend, Sir George Cornewall Lewis. In spite, however, of his possessing many of the characteristics which go to make up a statesman, Grote, in common with the party with which he associated, failed in achieving political success. The general causes of this failure are traced in Mill's 'Autobiography,' and do not here concern us. The virtues of the philosophical radicals hindered them quite as much as their defects, but it were vain to deny in the case either of Grote or of his friends the existence of faults almost fatal to the attainment of success in statesmanship. The weak, though no less than the strong, point of the whole party was that they were *doctrinaires*. They cared far more for their "doctrine" than for the feelings of the men to whom it was to be applied. It is manifest that Grote, at least, never possessed the talent of men such as Cobden or Bright for enlisting popular sympathy in favor of the reforms of which he was an advocate. The immense efforts he devoted to the introduction of the ballot are a proof that he attached an excessive importance to an almost mechanical improvement which, to a man of wider sympathies, could hardly have appeared a matter of supreme consequence. Nor did he or his associates exhibit, for the most part, any capacity for entering into a great number of widespread ideas which, sound or unsound, must be taken into account by a great statesman. The philosophical radicals never anticipated the influence which would be exercised by the principle of nationality. The so-called principle is in reality a sentiment, and could hardly be understood by men trained up to think that Mill's 'Analysis of the Phenomena of the Human Mind' gave an exhaustive description of human nature. The only trace we can see in Grote's biography of his interest in movements founded on this principle is that "he devoured the narratives of Garibaldi's exploits with eagerness." But even in this case he was clearly not much inclined to trust to a movement grounded on feelings for the improvement of mankind. "His practised intellect prompted him to entertain a distrust of any wholesome regeneration of the Italian people by political efforts of this kind, as long as the ascendancy of the Pope should continue." In this instance his intellectual coolness showed him dangers to Italian freedom which ardent Liberals have been too much inclined to overlook, as it also may have led him to reflect that the so-called principle of nationality might come into conflict with principles on which depend the existence both of freedom and good government. But the same disposition to underrate considerations of sentiment certainly blinded him with regard to the true nature of "secession." In 1862, he is struck with "the unreasonable and insane language of the Americans against England," and thinks that in dealing with America "the English Government and public, generally so meddlesome, have displayed most prudently commendable forbearance in spite of great temptations to the contrary." Nor did he ever feel that the South were bent on setting up a government opposed to all his most cherished convictions. It may be suggested, but we believe without

ground, that Grote's later sentiments displayed a conservatism of advancing age. His views certainly underwent modifications, but he seems to have spoken the simple truth when he said in 1869, "The opinions of the so-called Radicals of the present day do not accurately represent those which I and my friends held thirty years ago, and which I continue to hold substantively." His political opinions were the result of certain general theories, and scarcely changed throughout his life; but he had never at any time strongly sympathized with popular sentiments. He was always a political theorist rather than a practical politician, and possessed neither the vices nor the virtues which are essential for pre-eminent success in parliamentary contests. He himself perceived that this was so. In 1841, he retired voluntarily from Parliament, and never attempted again to enter it. When, towards the end of his life, he was offered a peerage, he declined a position for which he wisely thought himself in some respects fitted, simply because he felt it would interfere with the discharge of other public duties. His retirement from politics was in itself a rare proof of calmness and self-knowledge. What, however, is even more remarkable is, that he never seems either to have expressed or to have felt any of that discontent or vexation which able men are apt enough to express when they are conscious of anything like failure. His interest in politics, as is shown by his essay on the affairs of Switzerland, and by his excitement at the revival of French liberty in 1839, remained as lively as ever. He withdrew from public life simply because he felt that his real vocation was rather that of a student than a statesman.

Of Grote's character as an historian this is scarcely the place to speak. An opportunity will occur of estimating his great services to the study of history when the more "qualified expositor" to whom Mrs. Grote refers, publishes an estimate of Grote's "intellectual achievements." The points to be here noticed with regard to his writings are noted simply because of their bearing on his personal character, and especially on that self-knowledge which we have singled out as its marked feature. The composition of the history was no idea taken up simply to console himself for a retreat from public life. The notion of writing the history of Greece may have been, as Mrs. Grote believes, suggested by herself in 1823, but long before that date he had become interested in the studies of which that work was the outcome. Nothing is more remarkable in the whole of the biography than the notes of Grote's elaborate and systematic studies when quite a young man and occupied in business. The following record of the reading of a day is a mere example of the continuous employment of Grote's time:

"Rose at 9; breakfasted and continued my thoughts of the evening preceding; Mr. Bury brought me Ricardo's pamphlets this day; dined at half-past five; played on the bass; read some more of Ricardo; his reply to Mr. Bosanquet, which is most able; locked up and drank tea; then spent the evening in going on with my thoughts, looking at some parts of Xenophon and Aristotle."

This specimen is really a sample of the whole of Grote's life, from youth to age. It was an active life combined with an existence of constant study. In this passage may be seen that combination of interest, both in modern political philosophy and in Greek literature, which gives a peculiar character to Grote's historical works. This and like passages also show that Grote, in giving up active politics, simply returned to the career which he had deliberately marked out for himself. The quotation, moreover, suggests another matter which ought fully to be considered in order to attain a full understanding both of his literary and public activity. Grote was, it is true, a student, but mere study, or the mere acquisition of knowledge, was never the aim of his life. He remained, from the time, at any rate, of his acquaintance with James Mill to the day of his death, a zealous Benthamite, anxious to propagate the tenets of his school. Whether writing history or writing metaphysics, Grote was equally bent on the service of mankind. He was, of course, a man of far too much grasp of intellect to indulge in the weakness of writing the history of a great country with a view to enforce a moral. But he certainly looked upon the exposition of sound views of history, and especially of sound historical criticism, as a means of educating the world in political and philosophical truth. The fact that Grote was throughout life bent on aiding the triumph of the truths or dogmas in which he firmly believed, explains several features of his life which perplex those who look upon him simply as an ardent student, and a man of great kindness of heart, and unrivalled courtesy. It explains, for instance, the readiness with which he passed from the political annals of Greece to works on the doctrines of Plato and Aristotle. His latest writings will not add greatly to his fame, and many critics will be inclined to blame him for passing from historical studies to metaphysical speculations. The world probably lost something from his not devoting his later years to the elucidation of some portion of history. But the course Grote took was, at any rate, perfectly natural. He had always entertained an interest in history, chiefly because of the light which history appeared to him to throw upon moral and metaphysical speculations; and when he began to treat of the Greek philosophers, he was not

deserting his main field of study, but was exploring precisely that portion of it which seemed to him to require by far the most careful investigation. Many admirers of the historian, again, deplored his conduct with regard to the professorship of moral philosophy at the London University. We are not concerned either to defend or assail the part which he took in giving that professorship to an unknown man with whose views he agreed, instead of to a writer of high reputation, whose philosophical doctrines seemed to Mr. Grote to be grounded on error. All we would here point out is that his conduct, right or wrong, was in strict conformity with the principles of his life. Neither he nor any of his school were persons by any means tolerant of hostile doctrines. Grote's most ardent desire was to spread what he held to be the truth, and he did not entertain the least doubt that the truth meant in substance the doctrines of Bentham and James Mill. One of the anxieties of his later life was to fill professorships with teachers who would teach sound doctrine:

"I have," he writes to Mill, "gone through nearly as much anxiety of mind as I did when Bain's appointment was lying *en voyage* of Sir George Lewis. If Robertson proves worthy and effective (as everything leads me to hope), the gain for inductive and scientific mental philosophy will be most important. I am sorry to say that the younger generation—even those trained in University College and the University of London—appear to me to be of a cast essentially feebler and more prejudiced. It is melancholy to observe this when one has been laboring to improve education."

Part of Mill's reply is as follows:

"We must not forget that your experience and mine of the older set includes the very best of them—those who were formed under the Benthamite influence. There was in general Kimmerian darkness then beyond the region to which that influence directly or indirectly extended."

The letter and the answer mark out the exact position which Grote and his friends occupied in their own eyes. They were the survivors and representatives of heroes who had struggled in the battle between light and darkness. Tolerance was scarcely the virtue to be expected from soldiers engaged in such a contest. If they had some of the defects which a life of fighting engenders, they had also its appropriate virtues. Grote not only preserved his singular calmness of disposition, but combined with his equanimity an untiring energy, in which we suspect he had some reason for thinking the young generation deficient. To the very last days of his life he was devoted to the service of the London University. It might almost with truth be said that he shortened his existence through his labors on its behalf. His zeal for the public good becomes in a sense the more noble because his moderation of mind led him in his later years to be less hopeful of the effect of reforms than he had been in youth. When at last the measure to which he had devoted the exertions of his manhood was carried, he confessed that his belief in the ballot was less ardent than it had been:

"I have come to perceive that the choice between one man and another among the English people signifies less than I used formerly to think it did. Take a section of society, cut it through from top to bottom, and examine the composition of the successive layers; they are much alike throughout the scale. The opinions all based upon the same social instincts, never upon a clear or enlightened perception of general interest. . . . I believe, therefore, that the actual composition of Parliament represents with tolerable fidelity the British people; and it never will be better than it is, for a House of Commons cannot afford to be above its constituents in intelligence, knowledge, or patriotism."

A careful study, in short, of Grote's uniform and consistent career, both as a historian and as a public man, will make readers see something much more than a trite metaphor in the expressions of a friend, who told Mrs. Grote that Grote's intellectual course "always seems to me to resemble the progress of a planet through the firmament, never halting, never deviating from its onward course, steadfast to its appointed purpose." And any one who reflects on the inestimable value to a country of men upon whose firmness and honesty friends and opponents can alike depend, will feel the force, both as a compliment to Grote, and as a reflection on French society, of this passage contained in a letter from Mrs. Austin, written from Paris just before the Revolution of 1848: "There are no Mr. Grotes here; take my word for that; and, least of all, among the so-called Liberals."

RECENT NOVELS.*

"THE Fair God," by General Lew. Wallace, is an historical novel which has for its subject the first part of the conquest of Mexico by the Spaniards. The story is assumed to have been written in Spanish by Fernando de Alva, a man of the conquered nation, who was unwilling to have the glories of his country forgotten, and of whose long-lost manuscript "The Fair God" is preserved.

* "The Fair God; or, The Last of the Aztecs. A Tale of the Conquest of Mexico. By Lew. Wallace." Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1873.
"The Son of the Organ-Grinder." By Marie Sophie Schwartz. Translated from the Swedish by Selma Borg and Marie A. Brown. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. 1873.
"Nina's Atonement, and Other Stories." By Christian Reid, author of "Morton

House," "Valerie Aylmer," etc., etc. With Illustrations. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1873.
"Crooked Places. A Story of Struggles and Hopes." By Edward Garrett. New York: Dodd & Mead. 1873.
"The Dead Marquis. A Romance." By Leonard Kip, author of "Enone," etc. New York: G. P. Putnam & Sons. 1873.
"Athol." By M. R. H. New York: Pott, Young & Co. 1873.
"Brave Hearts. An American Novel." By Robertson Gray. Illustrated by Darley, Beard, Stephens, and Kendrick. New York: J. B. Ford & Co. 1873.
"Miss Dorothy's Charge. A Novel." By Frank Lee Benedict. New York: Harper & Bros. 1873.
"Blanche Seymour. A Novel." By the Author of "Erma's Engagement." Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1873.

sented as a translation. It pictures to us the Aztec civilization just before the arrival of the Spaniards, and the fierce conflict between the two races—a conflict which was made easier to the European by means of the widely spread superstition that Quetzal, "the fair god," the founder of all their greatness, whom they had banished, was to return from the East at about the time that Cortez and his men landed. Of this most dramatic chapter of modern history, the account is given from the Mexican side; we have put before us the intrigues of the different leaders, the life in the court, and also various love-affairs. As suits the subject, the book is extremely blood-thirsty. It is full of accounts of slaughterous fights, which are told with much enthusiasm.

That a great deal of pains has been expended on the setting of the story is evident—Mexican palaces are described at great length, and a general familiarity is shown with the life of that early time; and so far we may speak well of "The Fair God." As to the men and women who figure in its pages we shall not say so much. In fact, they do not impress us as remarkably living people, despite the quantity of killing they require. It is a maxim useful to remember, that an anachronism is the most pardonable error of which the historical novelist can be guilty. All the preparation in the world, accuracy in every detail, do no more towards making such novels good than real rain-water does towards making "King Lear" impressive. The first condition is to have men and women in the book; having got them, of course, the more gracefully and accurately they can be clad, the better it is. In the novels of the great originator of this sort of fiction, the armor of the knights, and the "by-rladys" of their men-at-arms, the continual falling of portcullises, and the riding of palfreys, while it is the part that is most attractive in our salad days, all seems to the aged reader a good deal like a collection of theatrical properties, and yet he does not fail still to enjoy and be refreshed by the human nature which makes these romances so delightful. In "The Fair God," we must say we do not find much of this charm. The conversations, for instance, remind one of the somewhat sophistical tone of those noble dramas in which scene-painting and much dancing take the place of true dramatic effects. In short, the work is all done from the outside, and the result is a clever book which falls far short of being a good novel.

"The Son of the Organ-Grinder," by M^{rs}. Marie Sophie Schwartz, is a newly translated novel of rather more interest than most of her stories, so far as they are known to us. In the construction of the plot it is very similar to many German novels, while in the fluency with which it was apparently written we note a trait which distinguishes so many women who write novels; and there really is not much else to be said about it. To the side remarks of the author we must, however, award the merit of being perfectly true. For instance, no one will refuse assent to this exclamatory statement: "What a revolution in a person's life is produced through being suddenly changed from an itinerant child to the owner of a considerable fortune!" Nor is there here room for scepticism: "What a fever one is in when he has to pass his examination and does not yet know the result of it!" And this is of universal acceptance: "How strange life is! How completely ignorant we are of what the next moment may bring forth! We stop outside a door, we lay our hand on the knob, and we do not know until the door opens what we shall find within." The book is well-intentioned, but, as the intelligent reader already may have suspected, dull.

Dull, however, is not the word of blame which is demanded by "Nina's Atonement"—a volume which takes its name from the first sketch, wherein a most dismal and appalling tragedy is told. It would seem that Nina, whose other name is Dalzell, is engaged to Ralph Wyverne, and that Ralph has a black-hearted friend, Martindale by name, who also falls in love with Nina, and who resolves to secure her hand. Being by profession a chemist, he expects to find it easy to effect this purpose. His method is the simple one of luring young Wyverne into a room filled with the fumes of a poisonous gas. But what is the result? The person who enters the fatal chamber is not Ralph; it is, on the contrary, Nina, who is instantly killed. Ralph, however, is balked of his vengeance; for, as it seems, Martindale had

"A glitter in his eye as ominous as the lurid glow that had come to Ralph's."

"Do you think I will ask your leave when to die?" he demanded. Then he put his hand to his lips.

"Ralph made one quick, tiger-like spring forward; but he was too late. In the throat on which his fingers closed, the death-rattle had already sounded. With one mocking smile, the soul fled. That faint, subtle odor of bitter almonds which betrays the swiftest and deadliest poison known to chemistry, was all that remained to the baffled avenger."

certainly but a slight consolation. The smell of prussic acid, at no time very gratifying, must under the circumstances have been simply annoying.

The other stories in the same volume are very much of the same sort, with beautiful heroines, large-eyed, mysterious heroes, and often with tragic terminations of the various love-affairs. The names of the characters indicate a nature which could only be at home in "manors" and the like. Indeed, we do not know why Helen Trefalden, Louise Cheriton, Powell Vardray, and Vance Lorimer, etc., should not have a large and luxuriously upholstered steamboat cabin. If our author could prune her imaginations into something resembling real life, she would do a good deed for herself, for she by no means lacks a certain quantity of merit.

Far different from such gilded scenes is Edward Garrett's 'Crooked Places.' This "story begins more than fifty years ago; and it commences in a quiet, dark room, with a young woman sitting at a window." It treats of the sufferings of the poverty-stricken, and of the consolations which right-doing brings them. The novel is far from being exciting; it is rather a meritorious Sunday-school story, a trifle more interesting than many of its congeners, because the veil of fiction is less transparent than is often the case in such stories.

'The Dead Marquise' is the ill-chosen title of a tale of the French Revolution. It is in reality a pleasing little love-story, prettily told, which has the advantage of escaping from being horrible. With that terrible background one has to be careful to keep tragedy from being too prominent, and this Mr. Kip has effected.

'Athol' is a production of our own great country. The heroine, Atholinda Derwent, sings her love for John Graeme, her cousin and guardian, after a fashion which is by no means rare in works of fiction. This is the sort of man John Graeme was:

"He was standing on the hearth-rug, in front of the grate fire, his riding-gloves and whip in hand, looking down at me in his grand Romanesque way, with his black hair tossed carelessly back—his heavy riding-cloak drooping from his broad shoulders. It gave me a great sense of vitality and vigor but to look at him, and by some mesmeric agency he imparted some of his life and strength to me when he was near."

John is older than Atholinda of course, and has a familiar habit of clasp- ing her to his bosom, of smiling "his sarcastic smile, mocking and shimmer- ing as sheet-lightning." This is when he is talking on "serious" matters. In short, there is no one who reads novels who has not become well acquainted with John in some of his forms, in any one of which he need only lean on a mantel-piece to fascinate completely the Atholindas who write novels. This story is no sillier than the others of the same kind, nor is it in any respect better. The plot is rather complicated, but the main point is the love-affair between the hero and the heroine, and there is in this so much "mesmerism," so many "fond kisses," such a getting engaged to the wrong man, that, on the whole, "M. R. H." had really better stop it. Her book is not too silly to do mischief, and "M. R. H.," like the rest of us, owes something to society.

'Brave Hearts' is another American novel of the present time, which gives us an account of life in the gold mines, with a judicious sprinkling of civilized society. We have set before us the gambler, without whom no true picture of this country could be drawn, and over and above such just measure we have the defaulting cashier—a delicate touch of realism on the part of the author for which we ought to thank him. The principal interest of the story lies in the way in which a little experience of life is shown to drive certain philosophic platitudes from the head of a young man just out of college. He goes to the West and falls in love with a young woman, meets with various adventures which are well told, and at last marries the girl of his heart—several of his neighbors and friends, whose fate is more or less bound up with his, also getting themselves married at about the same time. The best part of the book, we need hardly say, is that which gives us sketches of Western life, but certainly the "civilizers," as Walt Whitman calls them, would seem to be not extravagantly interesting people. Young people, however, will find this a tolerably entertaining novel; though their elders, whose taste in the matter of love-making demands something more complicated than propinquity, will not be so much entranced. As to the illustrations, it would be hard to say whether it is Mr. Stephens, Mr. Darley, Mr. Beard, or Mr. Kendrick who has done himself least credit.

A more serious attempt at novel-writing is Mr. Benedict's 'Miss Dorothy's Charge.' This gentleman is the author of 'Miss Van Kortland' and 'My Daughter Elinor,' as well as of several magazine stories and sketches. What is noticeable in 'Miss Dorothy's Charge' is its curious resemblance to ordinary novels, and its lack of any peculiar quality of its own. Nowhere is

there a trace of plagiaristic intent, nor is there any page to which we could point as an imitation of any particular writer, but there is in it a general resemblance to hosts of novels rather than any especially lifelike trait in the characters or incident in the story. The heroine is the illegitimate child of an evil-doer, who, after breaking many hearts, marries for money a woman who avenges her sex most nobly. The heroine meanwhile is adopted by the rake's sister, Miss Dorothy, and under her care she grows up. Then she visits Europe with her father's legitimate daughter, and they both go into society with greater satisfaction than they could have done in their own land. They have various love-affairs, there is the disclosure that after all the first child was born in wedlock, but she throws the proof in the fire to save the fame of her friend, and they are both happily married. As may be seen, the plot of the story bears no strong resemblance to life, nor if it did would it have much effect in making the story appear natural. Everywhere it runs along at about the same degree of excellence, but everywhere it falls short of being really good; yet it escapes so many of the faults which disfigure works of fiction that it certainly should escape condemnation, and this negative merit it is that demands that 'Miss Dorothy's Charge' should be judged by higher standards. When this is done, the book appears to be an excellent imitation—written in good taste and with an intelligent appreciation of what goes to making life agreeable—of better novels, which have been studied from life itself, and not from the pages of other writers. As novels go, this one is fairly readable; we only regret that Mr. Benedict has not improved on his earlier work, and made it still more so.

A thoroughly readable novel, and one which may well be compared with Mr. Benedict's, is 'Blanche Seymour,' a reprint from the English edition. This is by no means a story which will be read and praised when Cervantes is forgotten; it is simply the story of the love of a young and charming girl for a man who was unworthy of her. It is not made a pretext for tragic denunciations of heartless men, nor of pathetic appeals for sympathy for neglected maidens; it is nothing more than a picture of a not uncommon life, which everywhere is agreeably set before us. The author's great merit consists in the commendable naturalness of all her characters. She is, too, very amusing with her side-remarks and the feminine cleverness which is to be seen on every page. In fact, except for the small tragic pang at the end of the book, which occurs at what is perhaps the only solution of the complication of the plot, we hardly know a more entertaining little volume than this.

CHILDRENS' HOLIDAY BOOKS.—II.*

THAT industrious statesman, Mr. Knatchbull-Hugessen, has another thick volume of stories ready for this Christmas, called 'Queer Folk.' As it resembles his previous ones in size, so it appears to do in merit. The 'Warlock of Coombe,' which contains a very animated battle-scene, will probably be as popular as anything he has written; and in none of the seven stories does there seem to be any falling off in inventive capacity. Our opinion as to his demerits, expressed very fully last year, remains unchanged; although the offences against decent and gentle manners seem to be fewer in number this time, they are unabated in quality. As, for example, in a scene supposed to be pathetic, where an old farmer discovers his only daughter to have been carried off by bandits, this sentence occurs: "Then he threw himself down on the ground in utter despair, which, as the spot he selected for this performance was the middle of the cow-yard, improved his personal appearance no more than it removed the cause of his sorrow." And this is followed by a pious appeal for "strength from Him," etc. If that is "humorous," we suppose this is too: Three beautiful girls are "condemned to be stripped and washed in hog-wash before all the court-ladies." Truly, this seems strong meat, even for British babes.

Mr. Knatchbull-Hugessen appears to have a rival in the field this year in the person of Mr. John Francis Maguire, M.P., who offers the child-public 'Young Prince Marigold, and Other Fairy Stories.' The one which gives its name to the book is the shortest and for the youngest readers, the remaining two being much more important. Of the innumerable animal biographies and autobiographies it has been our lot to read, Mr. Maguire's "Autobiography of a Cat" has about the most in it. These stories are not likely to reach the popularity they deserve among the young folks, on account of the "big words"—the style of language being entirely beyond most small readers. Grown-up people are evidently included in the audience, and much of the dry

* * 'Queer Folk.' Seven Stories by the Rt. Hon. E. H. Knatchbull-Hugessen, M.P., author of 'Stories for my Children,' 'Crackers for Christmas,' etc. Illustrated by S. E. Waller. London and New York: Macmillan & Co.

'Young Prince Marigold, and Other Fairy Stories.' By John Francis Maguire, M.P. Illustrated by S. E. Waller. London and New York: Macmillan & Co.

'Child World.' By Gail Hamilton. Boston: Shepard & Gill.

'The Three Judges: Story of the Men who beheaded their King.' By Israel P. Warren. With an introduction by Rev. Leonard Bacon, D.D. New York: Warren & Wyman.

humor that must be wholly lost on the children will be relished by the parents. It is a little difficult to do justice to these traits by single quotations, as they are mostly exhibited in the development of the characters. The king and queen of the monkeys are rather elaborately sketched; he is old, dignified, and uxorious, she young, handsome, and "skittish." "I regret to say she was too much in the habit of making over his royal highness [the baby prince] on his majesty, with whose public duties, more particularly those of ceremonial, the office of dry-nurse seriously interfered;" his "domestic clouds confirmed his tendency towards philosophy." "Jack Tubbs" is quite the most delightful fairy story we have come across in a long while. It will be impossible for most boys who love animals and sea-going stories as well as magic not to be pleased with Jack and his adventures. Moreover, Jack is humane and not brutal. The whole spirit of the book is good, even if a trifle ironical. Careful parents and guardians will want to go through it first to scratch out the epithets "nasty dirty," "nasty wicked," "nasty filthy," where they frequently occur.

"Child-World" deserves especial attention as being a thoroughly characteristic specimen of one kind of modern American "juvenile." The class of which it is a type is highly popular, widely sold, and without doubt is a potent factor in the moulding of mind at the tender age when impressions are strongest and even trifles are not trivial. The origin of this kind of writing is perhaps owing, as much as anything else, to the liberal reaction from the orthodox Sunday-school books—those stories of painfully and impossibly good and bad children, of which Mark Twain's "Jacob Blivens" is a coarse but deserved satire. To depict children as they are in actual life was the natural and proper change from this sort of thing, and the tendency from that time on has been to make the pictures of them more and more realistic. That writer for the young who can present the most unmitigated photograph of any sort of boys and girls is the one whose works generally sell the best. Miss Edgeworth is out of date; her stories are not "truthful"—not "accurate representations of daily life as we see it." *Simple Susan* is unnaturally filial and unselfish, and *Francisco* unnaturally honest and industrious. Can any good result to children from teachings founded on such presentations of false character? This question is generally answered by the modern "juvenile" writer with a hearty negative—if not after process of thought, at least after process of imitation of the popular style. Gail Hamilton now enters this field, and, with her usual cleverness, "goes you one better" than the last veritable historian. To paint the "child-world" as it is, is plainly her intention—or, to be more exact, to paint the "child-world" as she has seen it. So we have precocity of language, a good deal of funny "baby-talk," some slang, a touch of swearing, plenty of natural naughtiness, little goodness but that resulting from natural impulses; docile papas and mammas who either rule by love or let ruling alone altogether; grown-up folks who use very big words and draw out funny retorts from the young ones. Nobody is unpleasantly disciplined; everybody is "smart," especially the writer. Her children can all "see through a millstone"; explanations or circumstantial descriptions are superfluous with the sharp little Yankee audience she intends to address. "Why draw these old-fashioned obvious 'morals'?" asks, in effect, this entertaining story-teller.

Let us give some illustrations of all these assertions. To begin with, here is a lesson for a very small child:

"Have you had a good visit, Lotte?" said Mrs. Meadows. "Can that chicken walk?" asked Lotte eagerly. "I asked you if you had had a good visit?" repeated Mrs. Meadows. "I want to see that chicken walk." "Then tell me if you had a good visit." "Let's see that chicken walk fast!" persisted Lotte. Mrs. Meadows could not help laughing, but she gratified her by putting the chicken in the chair, to show that he could walk, giving Lotte at the same time a little wholesome instruction, which she probably forgot at the moment, even if she heard it, so intent was she on the chicken.

Anybody who thinks we overrate a trifle in calling this a lesson, and a lesson in those bad manners which are so notorious of American children, can have had no experience of the plasticity of the youthful mind. Again, Gerty's father disapproved of her taking ether when she had her tooth out. "If Gerty had been a little girl, I do not hesitate to say she should have had the ether and welcome. Pain is too dreadful to be accepted when it can be avoided, and the very slight risk seems to me far preferable to the certain suffering." What a sermon on courage! But Gerty's parents, "unwilling to use mere authority," and having in vain exhausted their reasoning on her, offered her a pony if she would consent to have her tooth out! There is nothing, then, between "mere authority" and outrageous bribery! Still another case of discipline is in the story of "Jessie." Jessie has a hopeless lack of perseverance. Her father allows her to try everything, hoping that she will find something, at least among pleasurable occupations, to fix her wandering mind. The final effort is at lace-making in a beautiful gar-

den. Jessie's interest in lace endures about three days, when it gives out, and she excuses herself to her father, concluding with:

"Haven't you often told me to keep my eyes open to see what was going on around me, and be observant, and how can I learn to make lace under such circumstances? Haven't you often told me not to try to do two things at once?" "You good-for-nothing little minx," ejaculated papa, jerking her down from his knee, "take yourself off. You'll be a burden on my hands all your life. Clear out!"

And this is actually the end of it! The excellent Miss Edgeworth would turn pale at such a notion of instruction, could she appear on our scene; and no doubt Gail Hamilton would be quite willing she should, so utterly different are her principles, and so cheerfully does she proceed to be amusing, regardless or ignorant of consequences. But those mothers who shall have admitted both authors into their nurseries will be apt to confirm the title of Miss Edgeworth's volume as "Parents' Assistant," while the unintentional teachings of the "natural" "Child-world" may take long and patient labor to undo.

It seems to us that the method of dealing with children adopted by many of their modern entertainers in fictitious literature is wholly erroneous. Children do not desire, and ought not to be furnished, merely realistic pictures of themselves. Sensible parents do not describe their children to their faces, nor repeat in their presence their funny speeches or amusing little naughtinesses. Books which aim only to paint children "as they are" should be placed only in the hands of people old enough to discern their philosophy. A boy's heart craves a hero; and he believes in his hero with all the beautiful literalness and seriousness of early childhood. We mature so soon here, we so soon become self-analytical, sharp, critical, sceptical, that we not only cannot enjoy anything but realism ourselves, but we become incapable of comprehending that the young are imaginative and full of faith, and that for them a moral romance—we use the word "moral" broadly—may be made by a skilful writer of more weight and wider influence than many sermons. From the very nature of the case, it is impossible to separate children's books into the "instructive" and the "amusing," with the benevolent idea that it is cruel "to be always teaching a child," that you must sometimes show him how you "understand and sympathize" with him. A lesson he is bound to make out of everything he hears and sees, in spite of your false coddling; and if, to divert him after his arithmetic and grammar are over, you offer him a story of children with a low standard, he too will adopt a low standard. He will rest satisfied with his pertness, his slipshod good-nature, his bad breeding; he will not care a fig for such superfluities as discipline, endurance, modesty, or reverence.

The "three judges" of the last book on our list are more commonly called the regicides, Goffe, Whalley, and Dixwell. Their history is comprised in the fact that they were regicides, and became refugees. More fortunate than many of their associates who also lived beyond the Restoration, these three escaped the vengeance of the Royalists, and obtained a refuge in the wilds of New England. After their arrival here their perils were solely such as were caused by their desire to linger about the settlements of their fellow-men. In the wilderness they were safe from Royalists, and hardly endangered by savage foes. Yet as the sentiment of Puritan New England was favorable to them, these regicides lived and died in peace, known to a few friends, and only occasionally obliged to lie hid when some Government emissary was in their neighborhood. Two of them, Lt.-Gen. Edward Whalley and his son-in-law, Major-Gen. William Goffe, came to Boston at first without concealment; and the third, John Dixwell, seems to have lived undisturbed, with very little difficulty.

The book above-cited is simply a repetition of the well-known facts in the case, giving undue credence to Stiles's collection of traditions about Goffe and Whalley. It may answer, however, as a sufficient account to satisfy ingenuous youth, who will find more entertainment in later episodes in our history. We note on page 144 the curious statement that our President Harrison was descended from the regicide Gen. Harrison. On the contrary, according to Meade (i. 311), the President was son of Benjamin, the signer of the Declaration of Independence, whose earliest known ancestor was Benjamin H., born in Southwark Parish, Va., in 1645; probably the son of Herman H. or Gov. John H.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	Publishers.—Prices.
Abbott (Rev. J. S. C.), <i>Kit Carson</i>	(Dodd & Mead) \$1 50
Al-Ghazzali (M.), <i>The Alchemy of Happiness</i>	(J. Munsell)
Barrett (B. F.), <i>The Golden City</i>	(Claxton, Remsen & Haffelfinger) 1 25
Baker (G. M.), <i>The Temperance Drama</i>	(Lee & Shepard)
Borritt (E.), <i>Ten-Minute Talks on all Sorts of Subjects</i>	
Cassell's <i>Illustrated Catalogue</i> , swd.....	(Cassell, Petter & Galpin) 1 25
<i>Commentary on the Old and New Testaments</i> , Vol. IV.....	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Cohen (J.), <i>Analysis of the Life of Jesus</i>	(Deutscher & Co.)
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Church (J. A.), <i>A Metallurgical Journey in Europe</i>	(D. Van Nostrand)
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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

DECEMBER 1.

THE money market has been rather more active on call loans in consequence of the increased amount of business at the Stock Exchange. While parties in good standing have been able to procure all the money they required at the legal rate, others whose business requires large amounts have had to pay as high as $\frac{1}{2}$ and interest. There is more discrimination than ever among lenders as to the standing of borrowers and the character of collaterals offered before making loans.

A more active business has been doing in commercial paper, and the demand for the best names is reported to be very good. Prime names pass readily at from 10 to 15 per cent., and good names at 15 per cent. and above.

Advices from London are very favorable. On Thursday Cable despatch reported a gain of £1,065,000 in bullion in the Bank of England, and that the directors had reduced the minimum rate of discount 2 per cent., from 8 per cent., at which it had been standing, to 6 per cent.

The Union Trust Company recommenced business to-day with some \$4,000,000 cash on hand with which to pay \$5,000,000 deposits; besides which the Company has other assets, readily convertible into cash, to double the amount of the balance due to depositors. Several important changes have been made in the officers, to the very decided advantage of the Company. Mr. Edward King has been elected President, and we speak understandingly when we say that an appointment more satisfactory to the business community could not have been made.

The bank statement for the week ending November 30 was extremely favorable; the total liabilities were increased \$6,439,000, while the reserve showed a gain of \$6,900,000, of which \$4,500,000 consisted of legal tenders. According to the figures published below, the banks now hold in legal tenders and specie \$5,000,000 over and above the amount required by law. The following is a comparison of the averages for the past two weeks:

	Nov. 22.	Nov. 29.	Differences.
Loans.....	\$248,667,300	\$247,922,300	Dec.... \$145,000
Specie.....	17,568,700	19,968,700	Inc.... 2,400,000
Circulation.....	27,299,800	27,238,800	Dec.... 61,000
Deposits.....	167,957,200	174,467,200	Inc.... 6,500,000
Legal tenders.....	30,899,700	35,399,800	Inc.... 4,500,000

The stock market has been active and, up to the afternoon of Friday, strong. The greatest rise was on Wabash, Western Union Telegraph, and Northwestern common, in all of which stocks a pool was said to be operating. There was a sharp advance on Saturday in Union Pacific from 22½ to 24¼, upon the announcement that the U. S. Circuit Court at Hartford had decided in favor of the Company in the Crédit Mobilier case.

Prices were lower at the close of the week on nearly the whole list. There has been considerable realizing upon the part of holders, who, at Saturday's prices, secured a handsome profit on their purchases made within

the week; besides which, a reaction should reasonably be expected after a sharp advance.

The investment stocks are firm, especially New Jersey Central, Delaware, Lackawanna & Western, and Harlem, all of which appear to be strongly held, and any demand for them advances prices without developing any large amount of stock for sale.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending November 29, 1873:

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wed'day	Thursday	Friday.	Saturday	Sales.
N. Y. C. & H. R.....	88½ 89½	80 89½	89½ 91½		91½ 92½	91½ 92½	74,000
Lake Shore.....	70½ 71½	71½ 72½	71½ 72½		72½ 73½	72½ 73½	101,100
Erie.....	43 43½	43½ 44	44 44½		44½ 45½	44½ 45½	11,900
Do. pfd.....	66 67½	67½ 68½	68½ 69½		69½ 70½	69½ 70½	141,900
Chl. & N. W.....	43½ 44½	44½ 45½	45½ 46½		46½ 47½	46½ 47½	44,900
Do. pfd.....	64½ 65½	65½ 66½	66½ 67½		67½ 68½	67½ 68½	4,400
N. J. Central.....	92½ 93½	93½ 94½	94½ 95½		95½ 96½	95½ 96½	1,500
Rock Island.....	89½ 90½	90½ 91½	91½ 92½		92½ 93½	92½ 93½	18,100
Mil. & St. Paul.....	81 82	82 83	83 84		84 85	84 85	51,000
Do. pfd.....	54½ 55½	55½ 56½	56½ 57½		57½ 58½	57½ 58½	8,100
Wabash.....	41½ 42½	42½ 43½	43½ 44½		44½ 45½	44½ 45½	51,100
D. L. & W.....	91½ 92½	92½ 93½	93½ 94½		94½ 95½	94½ 95½	4,900
B. H. & Erie.....	1½ 1½	1½ 1½	1½ 1½		1½ 1½	1½ 1½	800
O. & M.....	21½ 22½	22½ 23½	23½ 24½		24½ 25½	24½ 25½	42,700
C. C. & I. C.....	21½ 22½	22½ 23½	23½ 24½		24½ 25½	24½ 25½	38,400
W. U. Tel.....	61½ 62½	62½ 63½	63½ 64½		64½ 65½	64½ 65½	222,500
Pacific Mail.....	28½ 29½	29½ 30½	30½ 31½		31½ 32½	31½ 32½	51,100

The Government bond market has been strong, with prices generally higher, in sympathy with foreign quotations and the firmness of the gold premium. The amount of bonds seeking a market is small, especially the later issues of the five-twenties. The official statement for November shows that the National debt has been increased \$9,025,576 84, and reflects the effect of the late panic so far as the revenues of the Government are concerned.

Railroad bonds have been more active with higher prices. The bonds of the Union Pacific Railroad Co. were favorably affected by the result of the suit brought by the Government against the Company and the stockholders in the Crédit Mobilier, the incomes advancing from 58 to 67, and the Land Grants from 70 to 71.

The following Companies have defaulted upon their interest payments due to-day: Kansas Pacific, on \$4,063,000 bonds; Chicago, Dubuque & Minnesota, on \$4,500,000 8 per cent. bonds; and the Chicago, Clinton & Dubuque on about \$1,500,000 8 per cent. bonds—the two last-mentioned being branch roads of the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy Railroad, through which corporation and upon whose recommendation the bonds were placed at 90 among its stockholders. It is probable that something more will be heard about these bonds placed by the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy.

The gold market has been sensitive to the various rumors circulated during the week respecting the Cuban difficulties. Upon the receipt of news that all difficulties were in a fair way to be settled amicably, the price declined to 108½, after having been as high as 110½.

SPECIAL NOTICES.

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